EMPLOYEE ALIGNMENT: A PROCESS FOR UNDERSTANDING INDIVIDUAL CHANGEABILITY

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

Despite the fact that employee alignment with an initiative is often considered a critical process of organizational change, few studies have examined processes where *organizations* change the *individual* to bring about alignment. This research aims to fill this gap by examining how employees change following the introduction of a new change initiative. Specifically, I investigate how employee knowledge of (1) a change objective (i.e., line of sight objectives) and (2) how to best affect the objective (i.e., line of sight actions) changes following the introduction of a change initiative. To better understand potential attributes that may affect the trajectory of the line of sight constructs, I take a social cognitive approach to suggest five potential moderators (i.e., locus of control, interaction quality, valence, learning goal orientation, self-efficacy) based on the five core concepts of social cognitive theory (i.e., agency, observational learning, valued outcomes, goals, self-efficacy). Additionally, I propose a potential trajectory for behavioral alignment, based on a theory of change momentum; and, I examine the potential moderating effects of learning on the behavioral alignment trajectory. I also examine a potential pathway in which line of sight actions mediate the relationship between line of sight objectives and behavioral alignment with the same five social cognitive facets as proposed moderators. In a sample of 189 fast food employees, partial support is found for the alignment model. Line of sight objectives influences both line of sight actions and behavioral alignment. Line of sight actions also predicted performance. When looking at the trajectories, the time period encompassing the

intervention saw significant gains in line of sight objectives, but not line of sight actions. The change in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions also predicted the change in behavioral alignment. Implications and future directions for research are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Problem

As Woodman and Dewett (2004) note, "it is axiomatic that changing individual knowledge, attitudes and behavior is key to effective organizational change" (p. 32). Therefore, it may come as no surprise that the role of the actor has been explored extensively in organizational change (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Woodman, 1989). What has received far less attention is the question of how organizations change individuals (e.g., Porter, 1996; Woodman & Dewett, 2004). In the context of an organization, given that employees are structured around some greater cause, the organization must be more than a collection of individual attributes. The employees of the organization must also be aligned with a common goal. Therefore, the organization must be able to change the employees, in some way, to generate alignment with an organization's changing objectives (Helervik, Hazucha & Schneider, 1992).

Thus, one fundamental aspect of any organizational change initiative is the alignment of individuals with a new agenda. In fact, several scholars have suggested that the large failure rates in change initiatives may be attributed to an organization's inability to align employees with the new objective following the change initiative (e.g., Higgs & Rowland, 2011; Miller, 2001). Despite that alignment with a new objective is one of the most basic and important aspects of organizational change, few studies have directly examined what affects the individual becoming more or less aligned with this new objective during this process (e.g., Woodman & Dewett, 2004).

Given the importance of alignment, the limited research on how organizations change employees may seem surprising. However, it is not so surprising given how little research in organizational studies actually takes into account how individual's change (Sonnentag, 2012). In particular, there are only a handful of studies that have empirically or theoretically developed an understanding about individual changeability in the context of work organizations (Woodman & Dewett, 2004).

Therefore, to address this important gap in the literature, there are two main parts to the dissertation. First, I will investigate a process through which individuals change to accomplish a new objective. More specifically, I examine how knowledge and behaviors change following the introduction of a new initiative. Second, I will examine a process through which knowledge may inform subsequent behavioral alignment (See Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 for a summary of hypotheses). It is important to note that this paper does not argue, suggest or examine what factors outside the individual causes the change. Rather, I argue that several environmental (e.g., social influence) or situational factors (e.g., intervention) can contribute to the individual change. However, this paper focuses on: *the pattern of knowledge acquisition and behavioral change following an intervention* and *a potential process through which knowledge may affect behavioral alignment*.

In the first part, I will examine how knowledge and behavior changes following a change intervention. More specifically, I propose to examine the change in employee's line of sight (Boswell, 2000, Boswell & Boudreau, 2001) following the introduction of a change initiative. Line of sight is conceptualized as an employee's knowledge of (1) organizational objectives (i.e., line of sight objectives) and (2) behaviors necessary to

accomplish those objectives (i.e., line of sight actions). For the purposes of this paper, I focus on the knowledge of the new objectives introduced through the change initiative (i.e., line of sight objectives) and how to affect the new objectives (i.e. line of sight actions). Through this research, I argue that improving employee line of sight to the new change initiative, through an increase in knowledge, provides one pathway through which an organization can accomplish employee alignment. In other words, I suggest that organizations can increase an employee's knowledge of both the change initiative (i.e., line of sight objectives) and how to affect the initiative (i.e., line of sight actions), which will ultimately lead to behavioral alignment. Therefore, to empirically capture this idea, I will examine how line of sight objectives and line of sight actions change for each employee.

In understanding how knowledge and behaviors change, perhaps more important than understanding the trajectory of knowledge change is to understand what may influence an employee's acquisition of knowledge. Therefore I will also consider potential moderators that can aid and hinder the knowledge alignment process. Given that this study focuses on employee knowledge acquisition, I examine the learning literature to better inform this process. I provide a brief history of learning theories and the factors that led to the development of one of the most prominent theories of learning— social cognitive theory. I also examine the five core concepts of social cognitive theory for potential moderators to the learning relationship. The five core concepts are agency, modeling, valued outcomes, goals, and self-efficacy. More specifically, I propose five potential moderators to the trajectory for line of sight based

on the five core concepts of social cognitive theory, namely, locus of control (i.e. agency), interaction quality (i.e., modeling), valence (i.e., valued outcomes), learning goal orientation (i.e., goals) and self-efficacy.

In addition to investigating how line of sight-objectives and line of sight-actions change following the intervention, I also plan to examine how behavioral alignment changes. Behavioral alignment refers to the extent to which an employee's behavior matches a new change initiative. Therefore, in order to understand whether improved knowledge is important for influencing behavior in a change intervention, it will be important to understand how behavior changes; and, whether knowledge of the objectives and actions can inform the rate at which behavioral alignment changes. In other words, I will examine the trajectory of behavioral alignment and whether a change in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions has any influence on the change in behavior.

In addition to examining how knowledge and behavior change, this study examines a process through which line of sight may influence behavioral alignment (See Figure 1). I suggest, consistent with both empirical research and theory, that line of sight actions will mediate the relationship between line of sight objectives and behavioral alignment (Gagnon, Jansen and Michael, 2008). In addition to examining the relationship between the three constructs, I also propose to examine potential moderators, through social cognitive theory. I suggest that the five facets described in the core concepts of social cognitive theory will not only moderate the trajectory of knowledge, but also will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and

line of sight actions. More specifically, I argue that high levels of locus of control, interaction quality, valence, learning goal orientation and self-efficacy will all strengthen the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions.

In the subsequent section, I will examine the relevant literature on change interventions, line of sight, and social cognitive theory. With a greater understanding of these phenomena, I propose a model of alignment. I hypothesize that immediately following the change intervention the employees will have a positive spike in their line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Line of sight objectives will level off over time, whereas line of sight actions will slightly decrease over time. I further argue that this relationship will be moderated by locus of control (i.e., agency factor), interaction quality (i.e., modeling factor), valence (i.e., valued outcomes), learning goal orientation (i.e., goal setting factor) and self-efficacy. Then, I propose to examine the effects of knowledge on how behavioral alignment changes over time. Lastly, this dissertation examines the question of whether an actual change in line of sight does influence the employee's behavior.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW & PROPOSED MODEL

2.1 Chapter Overview

In the subsequent sections of this chapter, I will review the relevant literatures of my constructs of interest and theoretical framework with a focus on a change context. I will begin with an overview of the overarching context of this paper. Then, I will examine the change intervention literature. I discuss some of the history of the literature focusing on studies that work to develop general theories of change interventions as opposed to those that focus on a specific type of intervention. Next, I will review the literature on line of sight. I will explain its meaning and value and discuss its origins and relationships with important outcomes. Following, to develop an understanding of how an individual's knowledge changes, I review the literature on learning theories, with a special emphasis on learning in a change context. Utilizing one of the most prominent learning theories, social cognitive theory, I will consider potential moderators to the growth trajectory of line of sight. I will also propose why I believe knowledge can ultimately influence behavioral alignment.

2.2 Context of the Study

There is no question as to the importance of both individual and organizational factors in the process of organizational change (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Although the literature has vacillated between two extremes of each perspective (e.g., Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; Judge, Piccolo, Kosalka, 2009), many scholars believe in a more interactionist perspective (Woodman & Dewett, 2004). The idea is that the process of

influence that occurs between an organization and an individual is bidirectional (Bandura, 1991). Although considerable work has been done to examine the way individuals affect organizations, understanding how organizations change people has been relatively unexplored.

To better understand this discrepancy in the literature Woodman and Dewett (2004) explored how organizations may affect individual change. One of the primary factors the authors listed in understanding the effects of the organization is individual changeability. Changeability refers to the degree an individual characteristic can be changed. In order for the group of employees to align with an objective, they must, at some point, change in some way. This is not to imply they must go through some personal transformation, but instead, I suggest that employees must have some change in knowledge (i.e., learn) and/or behavior.

As Woodman and Dewett (2004) note, different conative, affective, cognitive and behavioral facets each have different amounts of changeability (Ackerman & Humphreys, 1990). For example, from a cognitive standpoint, knowledge about a specific task is highly changeable, whereas general intelligence is considerably more stable (Lubinski, 2000; Markman & Gentner, 2001). Similarly, attitudes have been classified in order of strength, where weaker attitudes are more changeable during a person's life. For example, job satisfaction is more malleable than job commitment as it is more likely to vary from day to day (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 2001). Taken together, these examples illustrate attributes that an organization can potentially change in an individual.

Therefore, for an organization to achieve employee alignment with a change initiative, the organization must decide what aspect of the individual they want to change (e.g., values, knowledge) and how they want to try to change the employees (e.g., training, intervention). To examine the latter issue, given that one of the primary venues in which organizations work to communicate their message about an organizational change is through change interventions (e.g., Martins, 2011; Woodman & Dewett, 2004), I propose to examine interventions to assess individual alignment.

For the former issue, given the purpose of an intervention, to some nontrivial extent, is to teach individuals about a new agenda and the associated changes, I argue that interventions will be one factor that can be used to disseminate new knowledge about an initiative. More specifically, because interventions are aimed at teaching employees about the upcoming changes, changes to employee knowledge are most universal across change interventions. Although it is important to note, again, that I do not distinguish between a change of knowledge that occurs because of any specific event or process (i.e., intervention, social influences, or sensemaking), rather, I focus, through this research, on factors that enhance or weaken knowledge change and whether knowledge can influence behavioral change. Given that, up to this point, one form of knowledge has been examined most extensively in the alignment process— I propose to examine line of sight. Over the next sections I will review the literature on change interventions and line of sight.

2.3 Change Interventions

There is a lot of literature covering change interventions that has taken many different forms. In a recent review of the literature Martins (2011) noted that the study of change interventions has been the most popular way to study organizational change and development. However, as Weick and Quinn (1999) noted in their review of the topic, classifying the intervention literature has been considered one of the greatest challenges to investigators of the topic. To make things even more challenging, much of the work on change interventions has focused more narrowly on a specific type of intervention; and, therefore, many scholars believe the generalizability of the related theories of interventions were inadequate (e.g., Golembiewski, 1979; Kahn, 1974; Porras & Robertson, 1987; Roberstson et al., 1993a, 1993b; Sashkin & Burke, 1987).

The significance of this point is well illustrated by the historical development of the change literature. In 1972, Havelock identified almost four thousand titles pertaining to planned change and innovation. However, Kahn (1974, p. 487) suggested that, among those articles, only a few theoretical propositions were examined and there is little additional data or development that occurred in subsequent analyses. He further suggested that the same pieces of advice were reiterated among most of the studies with no additional support or disproof; and, very little work was done besides a few generalizations with little refinement or explication. Kahn suggested that the intervention literature lacked scientific theory and research.

Since the time of Kahn's criticism, scientific research on the topic of interventions did improve dramatically; the research was neither systematic nor strongly

grounded in theory. And although Woodman and Wayne (1985) did not generally find positive findings bias in published interventions research, Woodman (1989) offered a similar critique fifteen years after Kahn's criticism. Woodman noted, in a review piece identifying and exploring new arenas of inquiry in change research that much of organizational change and development literature was atheoretical and that evaluation research, in general, lacked the scientific rigor needed to advance theory and practice. Further, Woodman suggested that organizational change and development research needed "stronger linkage among theory, research and practice" suggesting that much of it is "shabby" and can be brought down to a training and values issue- where there is a lack of "quality, systematic, valid scientific research" on change interventions (p. 223). Although the time since Kahn's criticism had brought insightful research, as Woodman noted, in the fifteen years following Kahn's study, there was still a considerable gap in theory development.

As time passed, the research again got stronger, and following Woodman's review of the literature, more theory was developed. However, in a more recent review, Weick and Quinn (1999) echoed similar sentiments to both Woodman (1989) and Kahn (1974). The authors suggested that although steps had been taken to create general theories of change interventions and provide more systematic research on the topic (e.g., Cheng & Van de Ven, 1996; Huber & Glick, 1993; Katz, 1997; Laurila, 1997; Macy & Izumi, 1993; McMahan & Woodman, 1992; Mintzberg & Westley, 1992; Porras, 1987; Porras & Robertson, 1987,1992; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995), there was still considerable work to be done.

At this point in time, the research on organizational change and development was beginning to develop more theory and there were several different attempts to conceptualize change interventions. For example, some authors differentiated between human processual versus technostructural change (e.g., Friedlander & Brown, 1974; Neuman, Edwards & Raju, 1989; Sashkin & Burke, 1987). Whereas others classified interventions based on those that are geared toward improving the financial bottom line versus those that target the employee's work life (e.g., Sashkin & Burke, 1987). Still others classify interventions targeted at human resources, organizational structure, technology and total quality management (e.g., Macy & Izumi, 1993). Also, some classified interventions based on those aimed to make changes to technology, organizing arrangements, social factors and physical setting (Porras, 1987; Porras & Robertson, 1992). Lastly, Mcmahan and Woodman (1992) offered an empirical solution by surveying the largest 500 industrial firms in regards to their organizational change and development interventions. The results suggested four types of change interventions in the private sector: human processual, technostructural, strategic planning and systemwide change programs.

As a result of the theorizing at the time, several scholars attempted to aggregate the results to help consolidate relevant findings for change interventions (Guzzo, Jett, Katzell, 1985; Macy & Izumi, 1993; Robertson et al., 1993). Notwithstanding the conflicting opinions on how to best organize the literature on change interventions, meta-analytic work provided strong empirical support for the value of interventions. For example, Guzzo and colleagues conducted a meta-analysis on the effects of

psychologically based interventions on worker behavior. The authors examined an eleven-factor categorization of change interventions as identified by Katzell, Bienstock and Faerstein (1977). Their results, more generally, suggested that interventions can increase organizational productivity, on average, by nearly half a standard deviation, pointing to the overall strength of change interventions. More specifically, the authors found a moderate to strong relationship for several types of interventions on worker productivity.

Macy and Izumi (1993), also saw Woodman's (1989) seminal call for more action as a suggestion for "a standardized methodology assessing performance outcomes and their relationships with certain planned action-levers or design features across organizations in organizational change and organizational development" (Macy & Izumi, 1993; p. 237). The authors developed a five-category system, examining interventions based on structure change, human resources, directed change, technological changes and total quality management. The authors found support for a relationship between change interventions and positive outcomes. More specifically, the authors found that the largest performance improvements came from the financial side, in that costs went down and product quality improved. Similarly, the results suggested that interventions had moderate and positive effects for behavioral outcomes, although the relationship to attitudes and perceptions and beliefs were only slightly impacted. Overall, the meta-analyses, taken together, suggest that change interventions are productive efforts. However, despite the positive and strong results, no single paradigm for understanding organizational change and development interventions had emerged.

The field still lacked a comprehensive mutually accepted theory or typology for how to assess change interventions (Weick & Quinn, 1999).

The problem was further discussed in more recent reviews of change interventions (Halfhill, Huff, Johnson, Ballentine & Beyerlein, 2002; Martins, 2011). In the first, Halfhill, and colleagues (2002) noted the disparity of a standardized taxonomy for change interventions, but the authors suggested, siding with Woodman (1989) that a single all-encompassing explanatory taxonomy may be an unwarranted pursuit. Similarly, in the most recent comprehensive review of the literature on organizational change and development, Martins (2011) also noted that no classification or theory for change interventions had garnered the necessary attention for change scholars to consider it a unified theory of change. However, Martins does suggest that one particular model for change interventions may be more comprehensive than all of the others. In particular, the author suggests that the process model, as developed by Porras and colleagues (Porras, 1987; Porras & Robertson, 1992; Robertson et al., 1993), which considers how interventions influence individual behavior to affect organizational effectiveness, may be one of the most comprehensive explanations of change interventions to date.

2.3.1 Process model of change interventions

Therefore, to better inform my propositions on behavioral alignment, I will look to ground my ideas, in part, in Porras and Robertson's (1992) process model for change interventions. To understand why I chose this model, it is important to know that one of the most salient discussions surrounding theories of change interventions is the notion of

individual versus organizational change. This debate centers on whether individual attitudes and behaviors must change in order to achieve lasting organizational change (e.g., Halfhill et al., 2002). Whereas all of the models for change intervention focus on intervention effectiveness, only the Porras and colleagues model takes into consideration how the intervention can affect the employees. Porras and colleagues identified a process through which interventions can affect individual behavior. More specifically, Porras and colleagues argue that change and development interventions should be aimed at influencing the work setting (i.e., social factors, organizing arrangements, technology and physical setting), which will ultimately impact organizational outcomes through individual behavior change. Therefore, the authors suggest that organizational change occurs, necessarily, through an intervention aimed at employee behavioral alignment with the change objective. Consistent with this model, I argue that in order to achieve lasting organizational change, it will be important to use the intervention to affect change in the individual. More specifically, I argue that in order to align employee behavior with a change initiative it is important to increase the employee's knowledge about the change objective and how to affect the objective. Therefore, through the subsequent sections, I will review the aspects of the model that contribute to this paper and suggest ways that this paper contributes to the model and the overarching literature of change and development interventions.

To understand why I chose this model, it is important to understand the rationale surrounding the development of this model and how it differs from most conceptualizations of change and development at the time. The Porras and colleague

process model for change interventions (henceforth, the process model for change interventions) can basically be broken down into three distinct factors. These three key factors differentiate this model from other models of change interventions.

The first is that the authors identified a process through which the intervention affects individual behavior in order to influence organizational change. As noted above, the authors suggested that change interventions should be aimed at altering the work setting in order to influence individual behaviors. One important facet that differentiates this model from others is that the authors identified a process through which organizational change necessarily occurs through changing individual behavior. The authors argue that any organizational change that results from a change and development intervention must be mediated by a change in the employee's work behaviors. Without changing behaviors, the authors argue, a lasting change will not be possible. This view is particularly important, because, as Quinn, Kahn and Mandl (1994) noted, research on the topic of organizational change and development had evolved from four paradigms, namely, organizational development, strategic choice, resource dependence/institutional theory and population ecology. And as Judge and colleagues (1999) so astutely noted, which is later echoed by Oreg and colleagues (2013), the knowledge of organizational change literature has mostly been developed from the level of the organization. Therefore, the process model of change interventions provided a break from the traditions of the time.

Second, because the process model is thought to influence individual behaviors, the authors argue that it should be a goal of the organization to focus not only on

improving organizational effectiveness, but also on developing the organizational members. This point was contrary to what many of the scholars at the time suggested through defining organizational change and development interventions (e.g. Beckhard, 1969; Beer, 1980; Bennis, 1966; Burke, 1982; French & Bell, 1984; Huse & Cummings, 1985; Marguiles & Raia, 1972; Robey & Altman, 1982). For example, Burke suggested that change interventions are "a planned process of change in an organization's culture through the utilization of behavioral science technology, research and theory" (Burke, 1982, p. 10). Similarly, Huse and Cummings suggested that change and development interventions are a "a system-wide application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures and processes for improving an organization's effectiveness" (Huse & Cummings, 1985, p. 2). In contrast to the prevailing notion, Porras and colleagues argued, instead, that the intervention effort should be geared toward both organizational effectiveness and, just as importantly, positively impacting an employee's "psychological well-being, their level of self-actualization or realization, and their capabilities" (Porras & Robertson, 1992, p. 723). This focus on the development of individuals is a second facet that differentiated the process model of change interventions from others of the time.

The third factor, which differentiates the process model for organizational change and development from other models, is that Porras and Robertson focus on a more expansive base of targets for the intervention. Since the focus of change is ultimately the changed behavior of the individuals, interventions can be aimed at more than just culture, strategy, structure and processes. Rather, change interventions can be geared

toward any aspect that can influence individual behaviors. The authors went on to suggest that interventions could be geared toward social interactions and attributes of the individual employees to name a few areas. Taken together, these three key factors provide a starting point to understand how the process model for change interventions was different from those that occurred at the time.

The authors also empirically examined the model. Through two separate empirical studies that examined both the overarching framework (Robertson et al., 1993a) and some of the intricacies of the model (Robertson et al., 1993b), Robertson and colleagues empirically examined the validity of their model. In the first meta-analysis of this model the authors largely found support for the process through which interventions can be aimed at influencing organizational effectiveness. In the second meta-analysis the authors found general support for the model. Across the two studies, the authors noted that although changes to social factors and organizational arrangement had positive effects on behavior ($r = .24$; $r = .13$, respectively) and on organizational outcomes ($r = .12$; $r = .17$, respectively). Changes to technology had a negative effect on behavior ($r = -.20$). Overall, the results from this model suggested that interventions, when used appropriately, could be beneficial to aligning employees with the initiative.

Although the process model has been important in understanding what change looks like and how that affects employee behavior, where this paper deviates from the model is through a focus on how the change is received by the individual employees. As Oreg and colleagues (2013) note in the introduction to their book examining the psychology of organizational change, most of the literature on organizational change and

development has been examined from the macro perspective of what change looks like. However, in contrast to the dominant paradigms of change research, the authors suggest that quite a bit of value can be gleaned through a deeper understanding of how change affects the individual.

In this vein, I propose to deviate from the more traditional views outlined in the Porras and colleagues process model of change. Although I suggest the intervention is aimed to influence the work setting, as noted above, I suggest that this occurs, first, through the process of increasing employee knowledge of the change agenda and how to impact the agenda. I then suggest this knowledge will generally lead to behavioral alignment with the agenda, which, in turn, influences the work setting. However, the purpose of this study is to explicitly examine whether knowledge affects individual behavior; and, therefore, I argue that one way to accomplish the effective alignment of resources with a change initiative is through increasing employee knowledge of the objectives and how to influence the objectives. To better understand this line of inquiry, I next review the literature on line of sight.

2.4 Line of Sight

Line of sight research originated out of an inquiry into whether individuals understand how their role fits in the big picture of the organization's overall strategy (Boswell, 2000; Boswell & Boudreau, 2001). This is not to imply that the idea predicating the construct is necessarily new, as Boswell noted the research on meaningful work (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), role clarity (Jackson & Schuler, 1985) and perceived fit (Cable & Judge, 1996) each discuss the notion of how an individual

can fit with and contribute to an organization. However, prior to Boswell and Boudreau's (2001) piece, the authors noted that despite a loose discussion of the overarching topic, academics were still uncertain of how to operationalize the concept, how to improve it, or what advantages it produces. Further, although employee line of sight to organizational objectives had been discussed intermittently through disparate topics, there was little explicit research examining its drivers and consequences, or even attempts to measure the concept.

Line of sight research was primarily driven from a desire to understand two basic things: (1) conceptually how to strategically align employees with an objective; and, (2) empirically whether, in fact, line of sight even existed, and if it does, how line of sight impacts the organization. Given the perceived importance of an employee's understanding of the strategic initiative on work-related outcomes (e.g., Jackson & Schuler, 1985), several early studies were developed to better explicate the line of sight concept. To answer some of these basic questions, Boswell and Boudreau (2001) introduced the concept by conducting semi-structured group meetings within large technology and healthcare organizations across four different industries. The authors found, interestingly, that all organizations, across industries, had similar views about the concept. The line of sight idea drew similar definitions from the different organizations and similar ideas about who needs to have line of sight. And, based on the qualitative results, Boswell and Boudreau more formally defined line of sight as "an understanding of the organization's objectives and how to contribute to those objectives" (Boswell & Boudreau, 2001; p. 851). Also, the authors found that when employees had line of sight

to the organization's strategy, they were more likely to behave consistent with the strategy, suggesting the importance for both thoughts and actions. Although the results were fairly strong in support of line of sight, the qualitative results did suggest that there were differing opinions on how each organization could enhance line of sight, how to assess it and potential antecedents. These differences suggested that considerable work still needed to be done on the topic.

Despite the strong findings and the clear delineation of work that was discussed in Boswell's initial qualitative inquiry, the line of sight concept, as I discuss it here, was only briefly mentioned in a handful of published academic articles over the next several years (e.g., DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006; Lings & Greenly, 2005). However, the idea resonated with several practitioners. For example, Towers Perrin suggested, through several reports (e.g., 2003a, 2003b, 2004), that employee knowledge of the organization's strategies was beneficial for the organization. For example, in 2003 they noted that providing knowledge of the broader organizational initiatives is at the heart of the employer-employee relationship and that employees are eager to know, so it can provide clues on how to act. Not surprisingly, their results showed that line of sight is part of "the environment of mutual trust, accountability and responsibility that is important in winning over discretionary effort" (p. 11). And, similarly, Boswell, Bingham and Colvin (2006) noted when employees have line of sight to the objective, they are more likely to behave in support of a firm's strategic objective, which can produce a competitive advantage. Not surprisingly, then, line of sight has also been

linked to increased employee engagement (Corporate Leadership Council, 2004; Konrad, 2006; Towers Perrin, 2003a, 2004).

In addition to the practitioners, Hatch and Dyer (2004) examined the topic. Without using the term "line of sight" or noting the work of Boswell and Boudreau, Hatch and Dyer conducted an analysis of human capital and learning with an attempt to understand the variations in learning performance in the semiconductor industry. Utilizing the resource based view of the firm (Barney, 1991), the authors examined whether human capital, which was defined as a worker's knowledge and skills pertaining to the organization's objectives, could be, in fact, a source of competitive advantage for a firm. Interestingly, the authors found that greater investments in employee knowledge can provide a competitive advantage when those employees are placed in a situation where they have influence on an initiative. Also, the authors found that organizations allowing employees to learn the objectives (i.e., line of sight objective), train the employees properly with firm specific human capital on how to meet the objectives (i.e., line of sight actions), and properly deploy the employees were more likely to increase firm performance. Furthermore, the learning activities were found to provide a cost advantage as the employees were able to utilize their tacit knowledge to aid firm objectives.

The study provides evidence for the importance of increasing employee line of sight to objectives; and, the study suggests that by doing so firms not only develop a stronger competitive advantage with human capital, they also develop the ability to learn and improve faster, both of which influence the organization's performance. In addition

to Hatch and Dyer's piece, several other studies have found evidence that knowledge of an organization's goals can lead to higher personal commitment behaviors in achieving the organization's goals (e.g., Enriquez, McBride, Paxton, 2001; Pappas, Flaherty, Wooldridge, 2004). Taken together, the results from these studies suggest that line of sight is an important aspect of employee alignment.

Given the strong results from Boswell's qualitative piece coupled with the results indicating the importance of employees learning the objective and how to affect the objective, the importance of line of sight was gaining momentum. However, there was one major limitation to conducting line of sight research—the inability to measure the concept. To address this and other gaps in the literature, Boswell (2006) formally measured line of sight and sought to establish discriminant and divergent validity. First, she operationalized the concept, differentiating between the two aspects of line of sight (1) understanding the organization's objectives, which she termed line of sight objectives (LOS-O); and, (2) understanding how to contribute to those objectives, which she termed line of sight actions (LOS-A). It is important to note, again, that for the purposes of the current research, line of sight objectives refers to the employee's line of sight to the new objectives resulting from the change initiative and line of sight actions refers to the employee's line of sight to the actions that can best affect the new objectives associated with the change initiative.

Through her research, Boswell found empirical support for the two-factor structure of line of sight and also found discriminant validity with several important variables such as person organization fit and turnover. Interestingly, the results showed

that during a strategic alignment of human capital with a human resource system, understanding how to contribute to the strategic objective was more important than understanding the organization's goals. Also, Boswell found discriminant validity for both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions and the conceptually similar variables, person-organization fit, role clarity and task significance. Further, line of sight constructs, and particularly line of sight actions, were found to be important predictors for outcomes such as role clarity, job satisfaction, intent to quit, anxiety and turnover. Taken together, the results from this study not only found a way to empirically measure line of sight, but also support the importance of line of sight, and suggested several opportunities for future research.

Following Boswell's work, scholars across disciplines began to examine the importance of line of sight during the process of alignment. For example, Chong, Chan, Ooi and Darman (2011) examined how line of sight to an IT implementation impacted the alignment between the IT and business units. In a survey administered to Indonesian manufacturing firms, the authors found support for a link between line of sight and self-reported behavioral alignment. Although the self-reported measure of behavioral alignment may not provide strong evidence for the relationship, the results suggest further investigation is warranted. Similarly, and in a different area of study, Gagnon and colleagues (2008) examined the role of line of sight and its importance in garnering commitment during a new strategy implementation. In a study of production employees at a manufacturing firm, the authors found support for a relationship between line of sight and behavioral alignment. More specifically, the authors found that knowledge of

the new strategic initiative was important in fostering strategic commitment, which ultimately was important for addressing supervisor rated behavioral alignment. Taken together, these studies begin to suggest the importance of line of sight in the alignment process.

In addition to being important for employee alignment to organizational objectives generally, I argue that line of sight is particularly important in organizational change initiatives. To better understand why, it will be important to understand the importance of each variable, line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, separately. In her research on the topic, line of sight objectives was examined in understanding a strategic initiative (e.g., Boswell & Boudreau, 2001; Boswell, 2006), which unlike a change initiative is not typically marked by the level of disruption (e.g., Caldwell, Herold & Fedor, 2004). However, when Gagnon and colleagues examined the process during a new initiative, which was marked by change, the authors found a moderate relationship between line of sight objectives and both supervisor-rated performance and strategic commitment.

Similarly, in an example from the change literature, although line of sight was not measured directly, Vaara (2003) examined the role of knowledge in a Finnish furniture manufacturer during the alignment process following an acquisition. In the more disruptive change process, the author found increased ambiguity and confusion about change objectives were important factors leading to managers with different agendas fighting to align employees with their vision. As a result, the author found that employees, when faced with confusion about the objective, sometimes acted against the

proposed change. Ultimately, this led to a failed change initiative. Taken together, these studies suggest that improper knowledge of a change initiative (i.e., line of sight objectives), may impact line of sight actions more proximally and actual behavior more distally, suggesting the potential importance of examining line of sight objectives during change agendas.

In addition to the potential importance of line of sight objectives to organizational change outcomes, I also expect line of sight actions to be linked to important change behaviors. Although I was unable to find any research during a change initiative that has explicitly examined line of sight actions, as defined here, there is reason to believe that it will be particularly important. For example, Leonardi (2009) examined, in a study of performance engineers for an auto manufacturer, how improper knowledge and communication impacted alignment among employees. And interestingly, a miscommunication between the engineers and the change agents drove the employees to change their behavior, but to focus on the wrong actions, which ultimately led to a change failure. This suggests the importance for employees to have knowledge of the actions necessary to affect the change initiative.

In another example, Leonardi (2007) examined the effects of how information can change social structures in a technology implementation for a large IT organization. The author found that after technicians failed the initial implementation of an IT integration, they continued to gather new knowledge because they understood the overall objectives for the IT implementation. As a result, they began to seek answers on how the objective could be met, thus increasing line of sight actions, which led to a change in

behaviors and conversations. Ultimately, knowledge of the appropriate actions led to increased behavioral alignment with the objective. Therefore, based on prior theory and research, I expect:

Hypothesis 1: Line of sight objectives will be positively related to behavioral alignment.

Hypothesis 2: Line of sight actions will mediate the relationship between line of sight objectives and behavioral alignment.

Although it will be important to understand how line of sight may influence behavioral alignment, it is only one factor of this research. This dissertation also examines how employee knowledge and behavior change following the introduction of a new organizational objective. More specifically, I propose to investigate the trajectory of line of sight objectives and line of sight actions following the introduction of a new initiative. Therefore, I next examine the rationale for the trajectory of line of sight variables.

2.5 Trajectory Model

In addition to examining a process through which line of sight may affect behavioral alignment, this paper also examines the trajectories of knowledge and behavior. More specifically, I suggest that, between the time immediately before and immediately after the intervention, employees acquire knowledge about the new objectives and how to best affect the objectives. Then as they go back to their regular working lives, the employees begin information- seeking and operationalizing the change objective in their day-to-day working lives. Although little research has

examined individual changeability (e.g., Pettigrew, Woodman & Cameron, 2001; Woodman & Dewett, 2004) and there is even a dearth of research exploring how individuals change over time in change research (e.g., George & Jones, 2001) and in organizational research (e.g., Sonnentag, 2012), theoretical work on change interventions and line of sight leave me with reason to believe there may be a pattern in how individuals learn in a change context.

I predict that both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions will be low initially and will spike through the intervention process; and, in the time following the intervention, line of sight objectives will level off and line of sight actions will decrease slightly and level off. To understand why, it is important to note that one of the primary ways that employees gain line of sight is through communication (Boswell et al., 2006); and, interventions are used as a means to communicate and transfer knowledge of the strategies, structures and processes that can lead to organizational effectiveness (Cummings & Worley, 2008). Therefore, in the time from immediately before to immediately after the intervention, I would expect to see an increase in line of sight. More specifically, although every intervention is different in terms of employee involvement (e.g., Cummings & Worley, 2008) and how initiatives are formulated (Bushe & Marshak, 2009), through the intervention, employees are presented with knowledge about a new objective and how to best influence that objective. Whether the process involves a more traditional form of diagnosis or a new form of meaning construction (Bartunek & Woodman, in press; Bushe & Marshak, 2009); or, whether the change is driven by the top, through organizational actors (e.g., Bacharach, Bamberger

& Sonnenstuhl, 1996), or is driven through a dialogue amongst multiple parties, through generative discussion (Michael, Neubert & Michael, 2012), a majority of the employees, before the intervention, will know little of the change initiative (e.g., Michael et al., 2012). Therefore, as the organizational actors begin to educate the employees through the intervention, there should be a spike in employee line of sight.

Also, because interventions are typically marked with improved attitudinal states, it will likely stimulate an emotional high (Boswell, Boudreau & Tichy, 2005; Boswell, Shipp, Payne, Culbertson, 2009), characterized by clarity and excitement about the initiative (e.g., Pasmore & King, 1978). However, as employees get back into their regular working relationships, employees begin to deal with the organizational realities of the initiative (e.g., Leonardi, 2007). The excitement of the intervention wears off and employees begin a collective sensemaking process (George & Jones, 2001) where they compare their understanding of the initiative with other coworkers. They must examine what the organization wants in comparison to their understanding of their job. During this process, there is little reason to believe employees would change their knowledge of the change objective. However, as the employees are faced with how they operationalize the objective, they must deal with their past work patterns and conversations and must integrate their new knowledge with the old behaviors. At this point in the process, there is evidence to suggest employees will find the information they need to ensure they understand what to do and their new responsibilities with their job (e.g., Leonardi, 2007).

However, the increase in knowledge that can come with collaboration and employee information-seeking, would likely be offset by the contrast effect that emerges (Louis, 1980) where prior job requirements provide an anchor and can interfere with the employees fully internalizing the new perspective (e.g., Leonardi, 2009). In fact, when organizational actors are developing the change initiative, rarely are they considering the day-to-day behavior of the employees (e.g., Leonardi, 2009). As a result, I expect the new employee behaviors will be anchored by the old behaviors, which can cause some confusion or improper integration of knowledge on how to affect the initiative. Therefore, I expect that following the highs of the change intervention, where employees are clear on the objectives, employees begin a sensemaking process (e.g., Gioia & Thomas, 1996), where they begin to integrate knowledge related to their old tasks with those of their new tasks, creating a hybrid of knowledge. At this point, differing political influences may have different objectives increasing likelihood of confusion (Vaara, 2003), suggesting individual knowledge of both the objectives and actions may get muddled. Taken together, I expect that line of sight actions will decrease in the time following the intervention. In sum, I expect that prior to the intervention, employees are for the most part unaware of the new change strategy; and, through the intervention there will be a spike in their line of sight objective and line of sight actions. Following the intervention, over time, their knowledge of the objective will level off over time, whereas their knowledge of how to affect the objective will slightly decrease and level off over time. Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses, which incorporates these ideas:

Hypothesis 3: Line of sight objectives will be low prior to the intervention (T_1), then there will be a spike in line of sight objectives following the intervention (T_2), which will level off over time (T_2-T_5).

Hypothesis 4: Line of sight actions will be low prior to the intervention (T_1), then it will spike following the intervention (T_2), which will slightly decrease over time (T_2-T_5).

Given the focus of my dissertation is to examine the process through which individuals align (or misalign) with a change initiative, perhaps more important than understanding how an employee's line of sight adjusts following a change initiative is understanding what factors enhance or weaken that process. To better inform my decisions on how individuals acquire knowledge, I next review the literature on learning. More specifically, I will focus on social cognitive theory to inform my proposed moderators.

2.6 Learning Theories and Social Cognitive Theory

Overall, learning has an important place in the organizational sciences. Employee learning can take several forms from knowing what to do, how to do it, how well employees are expected to do it and what happens as a result. Not surprisingly, learning theories have been a strong influence on a range of practices from, socialization (e.g., Ashforth, Sluss & Saks, 2007), design and delivery of training (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011), design of compensation systems (Frayne & Latham, 1987), and performance evaluations (Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang, Workman & Christensen, 2011). Learning is a fundamental part of everyday work practices (Dixon, 1999). In the change literature,

learning typically refers to the process of knowledge acquisition and the resultant outcome (e.g., Child & Heavens, 2003; Huber, 1991; Mintzberg & Westley, 1992; Weick 1991), where the outcome of knowledge acquisition is the ability to apply the knowledge to improve performance or to prepare for new circumstances (e.g., Weick, 1991). Therefore, learning provides the foundation for acquiring knowledge about a change objective (i.e., line of sight objectives) and how to make a difference for the objective (i.e., line of sight actions).

Learning theories developed from the notion that individuals learn through experience. More specifically, individuals use the knowledge of past behavior to improve their effectiveness in future behavior (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2001). Although most learning theorists agree that experience affects behavior, two different perspectives arose out of examinations of this topic. Historically, learning theorists took the perspective that learning either occurs through stimulus-response (i.e. behaviorist), or information processing (i.e., cognitive).

The behavioral approach to psychology is thought to have started when John Watson (1913) introduced the term behaviorism in 1913. Although this is not to suggest that the philosophical, methodological, and conceptual underpinnings did not derive from a longer tradition, dating back to philosophers such as David Hume and John Locke (Thagard, 2010). However, Watson's contributions suggested that too much emphasis was placed on the introspective approaches to knowledge acquisition, which are ultimately intangible and invisible aspects of the mind. In fact, Watson argued that the internal workings of the mind were better understood through neuroscience than

psychology; and, instead suggested that psychologists should focus on understanding how different manipulations affect behavior, similar to how a scientist studies a rat in a maze (Watson, 1913). In contrast to the typical individual approach to psychology, which suggests that learning occurs through some type of cognitive processing of information, the behavioral approach suggests that individuals respond to stimuli in their environment. Therefore, people learn through some type of response to different conditions, such as positive or negative reinforcements (Skinner, 1958).

In contrast to the behavioral approach, the cognitive approach to learning suggests that a basic understanding of stimuli and responses is unnecessarily restrictive of the aspects that make us human (e.g., Bruner, 1960). This approach criticizes the behavioral approach in that aspects of the internal workings of the mind can be understood through experiment, measurement and the scientific method utilizing psychological approaches to research. This branch of research is more interested in an agency understanding of why individuals respond to certain outcomes as rewards and others as punishments; and, how people differentiate between all of the stimuli in an environment and ultimately decide how to respond (Weick, 1991). Therefore, cognitive theories of learning are interested in how humans perceive, interpret and give meaning in order to make decisions about behavior. Ultimately, cognitive theories are interested in how humans process information (Bruner, 1960).

However, many scholars did not quite subscribe to the cognitive-behavioral dichotomy. In the late 1930s, a group at Stanford began to reexamine the assumptions behind learning theories. In an attempt to integrate the two seemingly disparate

perspectives and create a more parsimonious approach, Sears and several colleagues (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer & Sears, 1939; Miller & Dollard, 1941; Sears, 1941, 1951, 1957, 1958, 1963, 1975; Sears, Macoby, & Levin, 1957; Sears, Rau & Alpert, 1965; Sears, Whiting, Nowlis & Sears, 1953) began reinterpreting Freudian cognitive hypotheses through a behaviorist framework, by integrating similarities of the two perspectives. Although several scholars believe the synergistic approach to learning violated the integrity of the individual perspectives, the interactionist theories succeeded in several ways. First, the integrative approach was a departure from traditional psychological perspectives driven by the empiricism that dominated the discipline. Although the theory was driven by the empirical results of both approaches, the theorization of an ideal approach was novel to psychology at the time. Also, through an integration of the work that drew empirical support, the authors developed a theory that offered a way to generate propositions on social development that could be tested empirically.

Although this early work was considered successful, much of the focus was on how a single child or single animal learns. However, most of Sears' work focused on how children learn to deal with aggression. So when Albert Bandura joined Sears and colleagues as a faculty member at Stanford, he naturally conducted a series of studies with his students and colleagues to better understand aggression in children (Bandura & Walters, 1959). Following the lead of early social learning theorists, such as Miller and Dollard (1941), who suggested that social learning was motivated by drives, cues, responses and rewards, Bandura and Ross (1963) conducted the famous Bobo doll

experiment. The premise driving this experiment was the inquiry of whether individuals learn through social modeling or environmental or cognitive functioning. To examine this phenomenon, Bandura examined the behavior of children after watching an adult play with a doll either aggressively or non-aggressively in multiple conditions of reward, punishments and no consequence. Through this experiment, Bandura began to form his theory of social learning. He suggested that individuals do not just learn through behavioral manipulation, but rather they also learn through observational learning. It was through the combination of these insights and influences that Bandura developed one of the most influential theories in learning, social cognitive theory.

Contrary to the views at the time, Bandura (1986) suggested that learning occurs through triadic reciprocal causation. Unlike other learning theories, which suggested individuals learn through some behavioral manipulation or through some cognitive processing, Bandura suggested that individuals learn through both. More specifically, he suggested that the environment, behavior and cognition (and other personal factors) interact and influence each other bidirectionally. Therefore, people are producers the same way they are products of their environment and are influenced by a triadic reciprocal relationship.

Bandura rejected the heavy focus on a limited range of principles related to animal and human learning, which were ascribed from the behavioral tradition. Bandura argued that the behaviorist approach suggests that humans are mere pawns being helplessly driven by environmental demands, such as rewards and punishments; and, he

notes that after working vigorously to explain away human inner workings, behaviorists neglected to examine the behavior that could be attributed to cognitive functioning.

Also, unlike almost all of the other interactionist learning scholars of the time, Bandura (1977, 1986, 1989, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989) ignored the clinical successes of psychoanalysis. Bandura criticized psychoanalytic approaches as pseudo explanations that had debatable conceptual adequacy, interesting interpretations, and lacked the power to predict. He later went on to liken psychoanalysis to early explanatory schemes in other sciences that were later found to be either fictitious or ridiculous. Rather than follow these traditions, Bandura suggested that humans are not driven solely by inner workings or external forces; but, instead by self-regulation, cognitive capacity and the observation of others.

As a result, Bandura posited that knowledge acquisition occurs within a social context where individuals learn through observing others, experiences and outside influences. Also, Bandura suggested that learning occurs through four processes: Attentional, representational, behavioral production, and motivational. The attentional process refers to the aspects of learning that an individual selectively observes. When taking into account the numerous factors that occur while modeling, an individual will remember the facets that seem to be the most important and those factors that best capture their attention. Second, is the representational process, which refers to the process where the individual transforms what they observed into rules and conceptions that can be used to replicate the behavior. The third process is called behavioral production and refers to how the rules and conceptions are used to formulate different

courses of action. In this phase, the individual must compare their patterns against the model they have developed. Lastly, the motivational process notes that behavior may not, in fact, be a function of everything a person has learned. The idea is that individuals will not replicate everything they learn; rather, they will replicate the modeled strategies that generate valued outcomes.

More specifically, Bandura highlights five core concepts that are important to understanding social cognitive theory: agency, modeling, valued outcomes, goals, and self-efficacy. These five core concepts can inform potential factors that moderate learning in an organizational change context. Over the following sections, based on the five core concepts of social cognitive theory, I propose five moderators to the trajectory for both line of sight variables.

2.6.1 Social cognitive theory and agency

As noted above, one of Bandura's (1968) central tenets in social cognitive theory is that individuals are more than simply a function of their environment. Human beings are not merely manipulated by external influences. Rather, human beings are agents of their emotions (e.g., Bandura, 2001) and exhibit control through a mix of individual facets. Further, it has been noted that learning and performance improves for individuals when they believe they can control the events that affect them (Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Bandura & Wood, 1989), which is known as locus of control.

Locus of control refers to an individual trait that describes the extent to which a person believes that events are dependent on their own behavioral control (Rotter, 1966). The literature suggests locus of control is an important facet in behavioral choice

because it impacts individual perceptions on how strong their ability is to control their life (e.g., Ng, Sorensen & Eby, 2006). Rotter differentiates between two types of individuals, those with internal locus of control and those with external locus of control. Internals, or individuals with high locus of control, are self-determined and motivated to control their environment so as to maximize their benefits and minimize their threats (Rotter, 1966). In contrast, externals, or those with low locus of control, generally believe they are at the effect of different environmental factors (Rotter, 1966). In general, locus of control has been linked to important work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001) and job motivation (Ng et al., 2006).

Locus of control has been particularly important in social cognitive theory. In a study of managerial decision-making, Bandura and Wood (1989) examined how graduate students responded to a simulated task. The students were provided one of two cognitive sets: that organizations were not easily changeable (i.e., low locus of control), or that organizations were easily changeable (i.e., high locus of control). The authors found that managers, who were taught they had little control of their environment, were more likely to give up, lose faith in their capabilities and lower their goals. These events occurred even when performance standards were easily within reach. In contrast, managers that perceived high locus of control, displayed a sense of managerial self-efficacy, set increasingly more challenging goals and used strong analytical thinking when faced with problems. Interestingly, even when internals were given difficult organizational standards, they remained confident in their ability and continued to learn

and work with determination. This study illustrates the importance of employee controllability and its importance for individual learning in organizations.

Similarly, theory and research also suggests that internals are better able to manage difficult situations (Gatchel, 1980; Wanberg, 1997), they are often able to do so because they see themselves as change agents (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). In other words, those with high locus of control often see themselves as able to cause change on their own. More specifically, when faced with difficult situations, such as change endeavors, internals will attempt to reduce any threats by working to change their environment (Ng et al., 2006; Perrewe´ & Spector, 2002). Not surprisingly, these types of employees are often linked to having better communication about change (Jimmieson, Rafferty & Allen, 2013) and commitment to change (Chen & Wang, 2007; Meyer & Hamilton, 2013) and are better able to cope with change (Judge et al., 1999). Also, internals are found to engage in more problem-focused coping behaviors (Callan, Terry & Schweitzer, 1994), suggesting more resilience to changing work conditions and demands. In contrast, externals tend to believe a change situation is futile. Because change endeavors can create uncontrollable situations (Sutton & Kahn, 1986), externals tend not believe they can affect change. Externals are often less able to see opportunities to act and rarely develop an affective commitment to making the change last (Meyer & Hamilton, 2013). Similarly, externals are less likely to perform citizenship behaviors, which are often considered important for line of sight to develop a competitive advantage (Boswell et al., 2006).

Therefore, I predict locus of control will moderate the trajectories of both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that those with high locus of control will have a higher spike in knowledge of the objectives and necessary actions to influence the objective. After the intervention, those with high locus of control will also continue to learn as time progresses, increasing both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. In contrast, those with low locus of control will have a weaker spike in line of sight objectives and actions, through the intervention, which will decrease slightly over time. Although no literature has examined the effects of locus of control on this trajectory, I believe there is sufficient evidence to suggest the relationship.

Overall, given the important motivational forces associated with locus of control (e.g., Rotter, 1966), those with higher locus of control will be more ready and accepting of a change endeavor and will be more receptive to learning the necessary information for what the organization is attempting (Chen & Wang, 2007). Internals will behave this way because they believe they can influence the endeavor and want to know how to go about making the necessary changes (e.g., Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Therefore, when the intervention is offered and the employees are faced with learning the new initiative, those high in locus of control will do a better job learning the necessary objectives and actions to accomplish the objective (c.f., Bandura & Wood, 1989). Consequently, in the time following the intervention, because internals are more likely to engage in problem-focused coping behaviors, I expect they will not only believe they can positively affect their outcomes, but they will also work to accomplish the change goal (Bandura & Wood, 1989). Therefore, I believe these employees will be

more likely to work hard to gain knowledge about the objective that may have been unclear to them in the intervention; and, they will work to learn how to integrate what they learned into their working lives. As a result, I expect, those with high locus of control, will continue to learn about the objective and how to impact the objective. Taken together, I suggest employees with a high locus of control will see a spike in knowledge through the intervention, followed by a slight increase in the trajectory of both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions following the intervention.

In contrast, I believe employees with low locus of control will not try to learn as much about the objective and how to affect the objective. Because these employees are less excited about the change endeavor (e.g., Chen & Wang, 2007), they will be less willing to learn about the objective and how to impact the objective during the intervention. Also, externals will be less excited about changes occurring to their working lives and will likely not see the value in learning because they believe the situation is not in their control (Wood & Bandura, 1989). In fact, these employees tend to learn just as much as necessary to comply with authorities and often find themselves in the situation where they must adapt or leave (Meyer & Hamilton, 2013). Additionally, these employees are also more likely to behave destructively toward the organization through counterproductive behaviors (Fox & Spector, 1999). Because these employees feel incapable of causing the necessary change, they will be discouraged from taking the time to learn the objective and will take on less accountability for understanding what behaviors are necessary to impact the objective. I argue that as they re-enter their working situation, following the intervention, these employees will deal with more

confusion on how to integrate the knowledge with their new roles, which will lead to lower knowledge of both the objectives and actions. Taken together, I predict,

Hypothesis 5: Locus of control will moderate the trajectory of line of sight objectives, such that high locus of control will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight objectives following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower locus of control will be characterized by a lower peak for line of sight objectives following the intervention (T_2), which decreases over time (T_2-T_5).

Hypothesis 6: Locus of control will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions, such that high locus of control will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight actions following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower locus of control will be characterized by a lower peak following the intervention (T_2) and decreased line of sight actions over time (T_2-T_5).

In addition to the effects locus of control will have on the trajectory of the line of sight variables, there is reason to believe locus of control will also moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. More specifically, I propose that locus of control will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that the relationship will be stronger when locus of control is high, than when it is low. Given that internals are more committed to a change endeavor (Chen & Wang, 2007) and are more problem focused during change (Callan et al., 1994), it would make sense that these employees, after learning an

objective, would consider how to impact the objective. Also, given that internals are more motivated to perform and believe they can change the environment (Ng et al., 2006), they will be more likely consider potential actions that can be used to affect the objective. In contrast, since externals are known to have lower commitment and do just enough to meet compliance, it could be extrapolated that they may not work as hard, on average, as internals in learning how to accomplish the objective. Generally, these employees feel that their actions are not as important and are less likely to believe their behavior has any influence on the overall objective. Consistent with this theorizing,

> *Hypothesis 7: Locus of control will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions such that higher locus of control will strengthen the positive relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions.*

2.6.2 Social cognitive theory and modeling

In an organizational change context, one way that employees can learn is through observation, where a manager, coworker or subordinate can provide a source for observational modeling. Because, observational learning can be modeled through demonstration, written, and/or verbal interaction, and is not solely a function of mimicry, change interventions offer one such opportunity for employees to begin to understand the organization's objectives. And, Bandura (1991, 1997) suggests that the leader plays a significant role in an employee's modeled behavior. During a change intervention, there is often uncertainty and confusion for an employee on what they can expect (e.g., Vaara, 2003); and, in times of uncertainty, leaders can be one source for employees to gain a

better understanding of the organization's objective and how to best act to achieve the objective. In particular, as Woodman and Bartunek (2013) note in their summary chapter of a book explicating psychological models of change, "leadership is capable of fostering individual's positive attitudes toward change as well as being helpful for employee adjustment to the changes underway" (pp. 208-209). More specifically, individual learning can be enhanced or dampened by the interaction quality with their leader, which has also been referred to as leader-member exchange (LMX).

Leader-member exchange (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) refers to the exchange relationship that develops between a leader and a subordinate where differentiated roles develop between each individual employee and leader (Dansereau et al., 1975). Low-quality relationships are characterized by exchanges that comply with basic views of the employment contract. In contrast, high quality relationships are characterized by trust, loyalty and respect (Gaen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Not surprisingly, the literature on the topic often validates that the leader serves as a strong influence on the subordinate's thoughts, decisions, and behaviors (Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX theory suggests that the exchange relationships between the leader and subordinate create a sense of obligation to reciprocate, such that leader supported change initiatives will likely be supported by the subordinates (Self, Armenakis & Schraeder, 2007). As such, LMX has been seen as important in enhancing employees' organizational commitment, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Seers, Petty, &

Cashman, 1995). Maybe more importantly for this paper, LMX has also been linked to more learning based outcomes such as creativity (e.g., Liao, Liu & Loi, 2010).

Although LMX is not directly discussed in social cognitive theory, Bandura (1991, 1997) suggests that social factors, such as the leader, can be particularly important in the process of observational learning. Bandura argues that this is particularly the case when employees see the leader as credible, trustworthy and willing to develop and strengthen the employee, which tends to be the case in high LMX relationships (e.g., Driver, 2002; Maurer, Pierce & Shore, 2002). Further, LMX has been considered an important factor in employee learning because the leader can be instrumental in goal setting and feedback to help the employee learn (e.g., Bezuijen, Dam, van den Berg; Thierry, 2010; Lam, Huang & Snape, 2007). In particular, research has shown that direct supervisors can play an important role in helping employees interpret a change message (Larkin & Larkin, 1994), which can be particularly important for employees with a high LMX relationship. In contrast, when the LMX relationship is low, leaders may in fact serve the opposite role, diminishing or decreasing an employee's ability to learn. This can occur through several factors, such as fewer challenging work assignments and opportunities for growth (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997) and less support (Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski, 2001), suggesting the importance of LMX on learning.

Therefore, I predict LMX will moderate the trajectory of both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Although, neither high or low LMX will lead to a different spike in knowledge through the intervention, when employees with a high

LMX relationship return back to work, they will experience a positive trajectory in both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, whereas employees with a low LMX relationship will experience a negative trajectory in line of sight objectives and actions. Although no literature has examined the effects of LMX on the line of sight trajectory, there is evidence to suggest such a relationship.

Although LMX is generally associated with learning, a change initiative is often viewed as a product of the organization, not the individual manager (Self et al., 2007). This can be important because the instigators of the change initiative are generally perceived to come from a global change agent, as opposed to the direct supervisor. Therefore, I expect that LMX will not have any effect on how individual employees learn through the initiative, causing no change in the spike of knowledge that comes through the change intervention. However, the role of the manager cannot be overlooked as the direct supervisor plays an important role in interpreting the change message (Larkin & Larkin, 1994), suggesting that although the line of sight objectives or line of sight action trajectories do not change initially, they will change more drastically after the intervention. More specifically, I predict that when the employees get back to their everyday working lives and they must begin to figure out how to integrate the objectives into their daily work routines. As this occurs, it is not uncommon for employees to look to their direct supervisor for support (Larkin & Larkin, 1994). Theory on LMX suggests that direct supervisors will tend to work more closely with high LMX employees because there is greater trust between the two. Therefore, employees with higher LMX relationships will be more likely to learn more than those with low LMX

relationships following the intervention. Also, given the concept of reciprocity, employees with high LMX will also respond more strongly than employees with low LMX relationships (Self et al., 2007).

In contrast, employees with low LMX relationships will have a chance to learn through the change intervention, so there is no reason to believe LMX will affect the corresponding information. However, when these employees get back into their day-to-day activities, since they tend to receive less communication and support (e.g., Bezuijen et al., 2010), they are more likely to misinterpret the objectives. Also, as a result of decreased communication with their supervisor, these employees will need to rely more heavily on their own devices. Although there is no reason to believe low LMX employees will forget knowledge of the objective, I believe when it comes to understanding how to impact the objective, these employees will receive less support. Given that a considerable amount of learning about how to cope with the change endeavor happens through communication with the direct supervisor (Larkin & Larkin, 1994), employees with low LMX will have fewer opportunities to interact with the manager. Therefore, I expect

Hypothesis 8: LMX will moderate the trajectory of line of sight objectives, such that after the initial intervention, high LMX will be characterized by an increase in line of sight objectives over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower LMX will be characterized by a level slope for line of sight objectives (T_2-T_5).

Hypothesis 9: LMX will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions, such that high LMX will be characterized by increases in line of sight actions in the time

following the change intervention (T_2-T_5), whereas lower LMX will be characterized by decreased line of sight actions after the intervention (T_2-T_5).

In addition to the effects LMX will have on the trajectories, I also argue that LMX will moderate the direct relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. More specifically, I propose that LMX will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions such that the relationship will be stronger for high LMX, than low LMX. Given that high LMX employees generally receive more support (e.g., Kraimer et al. 2001) from their leader, which is often attributed to higher trust and loyalty in the relationship (Driver, 2002; Maurer, Pierce & Shore, 2002), therefore, I expect that these employees will have more opportunities to learn and develop a better understanding of how to affect the change initiative. In contrast, because low LMX employees get less support and have fewer opportunities to understand what the supervisor needs, these employees will have fewer opportunities to understand the change initiative. Given that the supervisor plays an important role in delivering the change message, I argue

Hypothesis 10: LMX will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions such that higher LMX will strengthen the positive relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions.

2.6.3 Social cognitive theory and valued outcomes

The third core concept related to the social cognitive theory framework is valued outcomes. Bandura (1986, 2001) notes that the learning process occurs through stages, where the final stage suggests that it is not enough to consider teaching the content and

expecting individuals to reproduce the behavior. This is because knowledge will not always lead to the desired behavior. Instead, Bandura suggests that ultimately what motivates an employee to learn and act depends on their perceived value of the expected outcome, which is known as valence, and is considered an important driver of individual motivation.

Valence refers to the importance and desirability of a particular outcome based on affective orientations toward the outcome (Vroom, 1964). It has been noted that an individual's perceptions of valence are based on their needs, goals, and values (Vroom, 1964). Therefore, when an employee has high valence, they are more likely to work intensely to accomplish a goal and they believe behavioral attainments produce self-satisfactions that can enhance change (Bandura, 1991). In contrast, when employees perceive low valence in the outcome of a task, their efforts toward learning the necessary information to accomplish the task are diminished considerably and little effort is placed on their willingness to alter the behavior or learn the information necessary to change the behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1986, 1991). Not surprisingly, valence has been linked to important outcomes such as commitment (Ambrose, 2002), performance, effort, intention and choice (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

Theory and research suggest that valence can be particularly important in a change context. For example, Bandura (1986) highlighted the importance of valence during organizational change, suggesting that employees need to have internal value for the expected outcomes to aid their learning on how to accomplish the objective. Similarly, Holt, Armenakis, Feild and Harris (2007) found in the context of different

change initiatives, that an employee's personal valence toward the change was important in predicting their readiness for change. This is not so surprising given that employees that value an outcome work harder to achieve the outcome (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996) because of the intrinsic drive they have to acquire the result (Bandura, 1986). Also, research suggests the importance for employees to have high valence because of it can create buy-in amongst the members to both learn the necessary information and behave in-line with the new change agenda (Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts & Walker, 2007). In contrast, employees that perceive low valence in the change often do not buy-in to the change initiative. Similarly, low valence, which can occur through sensemaking discourse, was found to drive thought and action alignment or even alienation (e.g., Bean & Hamilton, 2006), suggesting the importance of valence in understanding knowledge and behaviors.

Therefore, I predict valence will moderate the trajectory of both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that those with high valence will have a higher spike following the intervention, which will increase slowly after the intervention. In contrast, employees with low valence will have a lower spike in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, which will decrease in the time following the intervention. Although no literature has examined the effects of valence on the trajectory of line of sight, I believe there is evidence to predict the pattern in the relationship.

Given that employees perceiving higher valence through the change initiative will be more motivated by the endeavor (Armenakis et al., 2007) and will also be more committed to the change initiative (Bandura, 1986), they will also be more likely to seek

the proper knowledge of the change intervention and how to affect the initiative. This will be particularly true for employees that value the expected outcome because they will be more likely to see the inherent opportunity available and be ready to do what is needed to accomplish the objective (Holt et al., 2007). Therefore, when the change intervention presents itself, these employees, who are ready for the change (Holt et al., 2007), will be more likely to acquire the knowledge about the change objective and how to influence the objective. Also, after employees that see high valence in the outcomes of change get back into their work roles, these employees will be more motivated and will work together to decide how to best impact the objective (Bean & Hamilton, 2007), thus, allowing them opportunities to continue learning about the objective and how to affect the objective.

In contrast, employees with low outcome valence will be more alienated from the change initiative and will be less motivated to acquire the necessary information to understand the objective or to know how to best impact the objective (e.g., Bandura, 1986). Therefore, when faced with the intervention, low valence employees, given they are less ready for the change and less motivated to garner knowledge (Holt et al., 2007), will learn much less than their high valence counterparts, suggesting a lower spike in knowledge as a result of the change agenda. Similarly, when they get back into their work lives, they will begin a sensemaking process leading to more alienation from the objective (Bean & Hamilton, 2006), where they will provide little effort to learn what to do to affect the objective. When faced with the old demands from work, they will likely try to integrate what they know with what they only slightly know, causing greater

ambivalence and alienation from the change objective. This lack of attention and concern for the initiative will cause low valence employees to disregard the new information suggesting a decrease in knowledge about the objective (Bean & Hamilton, 2006). And, they will be less motivated to learn how to affect the objective. When faced with the contrast effect anchoring their behavior, they will likely confuse the transition or perform worse because they do not see the value. Therefore,

Hypothesis 11: Valence will moderate the trajectory of line of sight objectives, such that high valence will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight objectives following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower valence will be characterized by a lower peak following the intervention (T_2) and a slightly decreased trajectory over time (T_2-T_5).

Hypothesis 12: Valence will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions, such that high valence will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight actions following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower valence will be characterized by a lower peak following the intervention (T_2) and a slightly decreased trajectory over time (T_2-T_5).

In addition to the effects valence will have on the trajectory of the line of sight variables, there is reason to believe valence will also moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. More specifically, I propose that valence will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that the relationship will be stronger when valence is high, than when it is low. Given that employees with high valence are more ready for change (Holt et al.,

2007) and are more willing to work hard to achieve the outcome of change (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996), it would make sense that these employees, after learning an objective, would also work harder to learn how to impact the objective. Also, given that high valence employees are more motivated to perform (Bandura, 1986), they will also be more likely figure out how to best achieve the resultant outcome. In contrast, since low valence employees are less interested in the change and do not value the expected outcome (Bandura, 1986), it could be expected that they may not try as hard to learn how to accomplish the objective. Therefore,

> *Hypothesis 13: Valence will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and actions such that higher valence will strengthen the positive relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions.*

2.6.4 Social cognitive theory and goals

Another important facet of social cognitive theory is that it highlights the importance for individuals to self-direct and self-motivate (Bandura, 1986). This factor is particularly important during an organizational change process because change initiatives are mostly generated from the organization's perspective as opposed to the perspective of each individual employee and what it would take to implement the change across the entire organization (Michael et al., 2012). Therefore, the importance of self-direction and self-motivation are tantamount to an employee's success in the learning process. Bandura suggests that one important driver in the process of learning is through learning goals. Learning goals serve as a guide for employees to create internal standards and evaluate their behavior in response to goal discrepancies (Bandura, 1991); and,

when individuals adopt a learning goal, they consider ability to be an acquirable skill. Bandura goes on to suggest that when individuals use learning goals, they tend to focus more on personal improvement and consider errors a natural part of evaluation. These types of people, in a work context are considered to have high learning approach goal orientation (hereafter, learning orientation).

Learning orientation refers to a disposition that describes how individuals, when placed in an achievement situation, strive to develop their skills and abilities, understand their task and focus on personal mastery (Elliott, 1999). Individuals with high learning orientation focus on the development of new knowledge and better processing skills. These employees focus more on skill acquisition and are intrinsically motivated to learn (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004), where being interested in the task itself leads high learning oriented employees to have more intensive task engagement (Amabile, 1996). In contrast, low learning oriented individuals are less interested in learning and prefer less intensive tasks. More specifically, low learning oriented employees are more likely to see their abilities as fixed and therefore put less time into acquiring the necessary skills to succeed with a task (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). Not surprisingly, the literature on goal orientation suggests that learning orientation is an important factor in learning, motivation and performance (Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien, 2007).

Similarly, theory and research would suggest that learning orientation can be particularly important in a change context. For example, Caldwell, Herold, and Fedor (2004) examined the moderating effects of learning orientation on the relationship between poor change management and the degree to which person-job fit was perceived

to be altered, across a variety of organizational change endeavors. The authors found that learning orientation served as a buffer. More specifically, employees with a high learning orientation were less likely to experience negative poor change management effects on their fit with the job. Also, high learning goal orientation is often linked to flexibility and a focus on adaptive behaviors (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), which can be important for a highly dynamic change environment, suggesting that individuals with high learning orientation may be better at dealing with change than those with lower learning orientation (e.g., Vakola, Armenakis & Oreg, 2013). Similarly, it is often noted that individuals with high learning orientation often perceive crises as opportunities, rather than threats (Brockner & James, 2008). This is often because individuals with a high learning orientation adapt in response to threats during change (Cron, Slocum, VandeWalle & Fu, 2005). Also learning oriented employee are not as discouraged by failure and setbacks and are motivated by challenges and the pursuit of knowledge (Brockner & James, 2008). Further, those high in learning orientation are also better at performance on unfamiliar tasks (Dweck, 1999). In contrast, employees with low learning orientation are found to be more self-diagnostic than task-diagnostic, which creates stress and focuses their attention on their own deficiencies, as opposed to learning how to best proceed with their task (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Also, low learning oriented employees often see ability as a fixed attribute and therefore feel less able to change a given environment (Bandura & Dweck, 1988).

Therefore, I predict learning orientation will moderate the trajectories of both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that those with high learning

orientation will have a higher spike in knowledge of the objectives and necessary actions to affect the objectives, which will continue to improve as time progresses. In contrast, those with low learning orientation will have a weaker spike in knowledge of the objectives and actions, as a result of the intervention, which will decrease slightly over time. Although no literature has examined the affects of locus of control on this trajectory, I believe there is sufficient evidence to suggest the relationship.

Given that employees with high learning orientation are more likely to be flexible and adaptive in a change situation (Vakola et al., 2013) and they are more likely to be excited and motivated about the learning associated with change (Brockner & James, 2008), I expect that high learning oriented employees, rather than low learning oriented employees, will learn more during an intervention process. Also, as these employees get back to their regular working routines and are forced to consider how to integrate knowledge of the new objectives and behaviors with their old working patterns, they will be more likely to adapt to the new situation and learn whatever is needed to improve their knowledge (Cron et al., 2005). Although their initial performance may suffer because of their willingness to fail, it should quickly recover and re-stabilize because they are continuing to learn more about the objective and how to affect the objective (Ahearne, Lam, Mathieu & Bolander, 2010).

In contrast, those with low learning orientation tend to see their ability as fixed and are therefore less motivated to seek information that can help them succeed in a task (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). These employees tend to prefer more simple tasks and when confronted with change, are less likely to engage in learning (Hirst, Van Knippenberg &

Zhou, 2009). Therefore, I expect that, when faced with the intervention, they will perceive the opportunity as a task that they must do to comply with their job, which will result in a lower spike of knowledge acquisition for both the objectives and how to affect the objectives. As low learning oriented employees reintegrate with their job, they will be overly critical of their knowledge because they are more likely to diagnose themselves than their task. The nature of the criticism will lead to increased uncertainty about what they had learned in regards to the objective. And, as they try to figure out how to best affect the objective, they will struggle with making changes to their role because of their feeling that they are less able to change a given environment, thus leading to a slight decrease in line of sight objectives and a more substantial decrease in line of sight actions. Therefore

Hypothesis 14: Learning goal orientation will moderate the trajectory of line of sight objectives, such that high learning goal orientation will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight objectives following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower learning goal orientation will be characterized by a lower peak (T_2), which decreases slightly over time (T_2-T_5).

Hypothesis 15: Learning goal orientation will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions, such that high learning goal orientation will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight actions following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower learning goal orientation will be characterized by a lower peak (T_2) and a significant decrease in line of sight actions over time (T_2-T_5).

In addition to the effects learning orientation will have on the trajectory of the line of sight variables, there is reason to believe learning orientation will also moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. More specifically, I propose that learning orientation will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that the relationship will be stronger when learning orientation is high, than when it is low. Given that employees with high learning orientation are more committed to acquiring knowledge and skill development (Elliot & McGregor, 2001) and are better at adapting in response to changing demands (Bandura & Dweck 1988), it would make sense that these employees, after learning an objective, would focus intently on learning how to also impact the objective. Also, given that high learning oriented employees are more motivated to perform, particularly after setbacks (Brockner & James, 2008; Cron et al., 2005), they will be more likely figure out how to change their work role to better match the objective. In contrast, since low learning oriented employees are known to focus more on themselves than how to best affect a task (Bandura & Dweck, 1988), it could be expected that they may not focus as much on learning the actions needed to accomplish the objective. Therefore,

Hypothesis 16: Learning orientation will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and actions such that higher learning orientation will strengthen the positive relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions.

2.6.5 Social cognitive theory and self-efficacy

The last core concept of social cognitive theory suggests that self-regulation lies at the heart of both external and internal processes. Bandura (1986, 1988a, 1991) argues that human behavior is regulated by an individual's forethoughts, which motivates them and guides their performance of behavior. More specifically, Wood and Bandura (1989) argue that there is a difference between what a person learns and their motivation to apply the knowledge to perform necessary behaviors. Therefore, a person's beliefs about their personal efficacy, also known as self-efficacy, can be important for predicting an employee's self-regulation, motivation and performance.

Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in their ability to learn, remember and effectively execute a task (Bandura, 1986). The literature suggests that self-efficacy is an important facet in learning because a person's belief in their ability to learn can inform how quickly they learn a task and how confident they are in executing the task (Bandura, 2001). Employees with high self-efficacy believe they are competent and that they can learn and perform well (Bandura & Locke, 2003). In contrast, those with low self-efficacy lack confidence in their proficiency with a task and are insecure about their ability to achieve (e.g., Bandura, 1997). Not surprisingly, self-efficacy has been linked to many important outcomes in a work context, such as job satisfaction and job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001).

Similarly, theory and research suggests that self-efficacy can be particularly important in a change context. For example, Herold, Fedor and Caldwell (2007) examined a sample of employees across twenty-five organizations going through a mix

of different changes and found that self-efficacy was positively linked to the employee's intention to support the change. In fact, the more overlapping changes the employee was experiencing (i.e., change turbulence), the more likely they were to support the change when self-efficacy was high. Similarly, high self-efficacy is often linked to increased commitment to change (e.g., Hornung & Rousseau, 2007); and, this can be attributed to the fact that employees high in self-efficacy often believe they are capable of effectively dealing with change-related demands (Jimmmieson, Terry & Callan, 2004). Further, employees with high self-efficacy often believe they can change their outcomes and influence their course of actions (Fugate, 2013). In contrast, low self-efficacy employees tend to struggle with the pressures of performing and generally think that change will produce a negative outcome for them (e.g., Avey, Wernsing & Luthans, 2008). This is often attributed to the fact that employees with low self-efficacy believe they do not have the means to affect a given outcome (Fugate, 2013). As a result, it is not surprising the low-efficacy employees perform worse in training (Gist, Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989), which can be attributed to the fact that these employees are more tentative in learning and performance (Bandura, 2001). Also, employees with low self-efficacy tend to be worse at coping, and give up more easily with less adversity, which can reinforce their low self-efficacy (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Brown & Inouye, 1978).

Therefore, I predict self-efficacy will moderate the trajectory of both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that those with high self-efficacy will have a higher spike in the time immediately before and after the intervention, which will increase slowly after the intervention. In contrast, employees with low self-efficacy will

have a lower spike in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, which will decrease in the time following the intervention. Although no literature has examined the effects of self-efficacy on the trajectory of line of sight, I believe there is evidence to predict the pattern in the relationship.

Given that individuals with higher self-efficacy are more likely to support a change initiative (Herold et al., 2007) and are more committed to the initiative (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007), they will likely be more excited and ready to learn from the change intervention. Highly efficacious employees will likely behave this way because they have faith in their ability to influence a change endeavor and are generally more interested in learning (Fugate, 2013). Therefore, during the intervention, employees high in self-efficacy will be more focused on learning the objective and how to best affect the objective (Bandura, 1991). Following the intervention, when high self-efficacy employees are asked to integrate what they learned with their old behavioral patterns, they will likely continue to learn more about the objectives and will continue to generate ways to best affect the objective. This would be because employees with high self-efficacy are better at dealing with the demands of change (e.g., Jimmieson et al., 2004), are more committed to the change (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007), enjoy learning and believe they can affect change (Bandura, 1986). As a result, I expect, employees with high self-efficacy will have a higher spike and an increased trajectory in both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions following the intervention.

In contrast, given that change endeavors are marked with greater uncertainty (Sutton & Khan, 1986), I expect employees with low self-efficacy will be less likely to

learn during the change intervention. This is because employees with low self-efficacy have been shown to be less likely to perform in a learning context (Gist et al., 1989) and they tend to give up when they deal with increased adversity (Bandura & Schunk, 1981), which is common in a change context. Further, when they get back to their working lives, these employees struggle with the demands of change and are more tentative when it comes to finding the necessary information to affect change. Moreover, employees with low self-efficacy are less likely to support a change endeavor and are often less committed to the endeavor (e.g., Hornung & Rousseau, 2007). Given that low efficacious employees are more likely to give up during adversity, I expect that after the change intervention, when they are forced to figure out how to integrate the new responsibilities in their working lives, they will deal with increased confusion and lack of clarity making them more likely to mix prior job functions with new job functions, which will make them more likely to give up. Therefore, I predict this increased confusion, when combined with the low knowledge of the objective, will decrease their knowledge of the objective and, particularly in response to learning how to make a difference for the objective.

> *Hypothesis 17: Self-efficacy will moderate the trajectory of line of sight objectives, such that high self-efficacy will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight objectives following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time (T_2-T_5), whereas lower self-efficacy will be characterized by a lower peak (T_2) and decreased line of sight objectives over time.*

Hypothesis 18: Self-efficacy will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions, such that high self-efficacy will be characterized by a higher peak in line of sight actions following the intervention (T_2) that increases over time, whereas lower self-efficacy will be characterized by a lower peak (T_2) and decreased line of sight actions over time (T_2-T_5).

In addition to the effects self-efficacy will have on the trajectory of the line of sight variables, there is reason to believe self-efficacy will also moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. More specifically, I propose that self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, such that the relationship will be stronger when self-efficacy is high, than when it is low. Given that employees with high self-efficacy are more committed to a change endeavor (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007) and are more apt at dealing with change-related demands (Jimmieson et al., 1994) and believe themselves to be more effective at producing results (Bandura, 2001), it would make sense that these employees, after learning an objective, would also learn how to impact the objective. Also, given that high self-efficacy employees are more motivated to perform and believe that can change the environment (Fugate, 2013), therefore, they will be more likely figure out how they can change their work role to better match the objective. In contrast, since low self-efficacy employees are known to have lower commitment to change are willing to give up when tasks get more difficult (Bandura & Schunk, 1981), it could be expected that they may not try to learn how to accomplish the objective. Therefore,

Hypothesis 19: Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between line of sight objectives and actions such that higher self-efficacy will strengthen the positive relationship between line of sight objectives and line of sight actions.

2.7 Behavioral Alignment

Although improving employee knowledge is important in the process of alignment, much of its relevance to the organization occurs when it leads to behaviors that are more closely aligned with the company's objective. In other words, during a change initiative, one primary goal for an organization is to ultimately change employee thoughts and behaviors through an alignment effort. Therefore, the remainder of this section will be focused on whether employee knowledge does, in fact, influence the behavioral alignment trajectory. To better inform the propositions, I look to the literature on behavioral change.

Given the literature on behavioral alignment is sparse, I examine two separate literatures to better inform my predictions on how behavior will change to match with the change objective. To start, one place is the intervention literature. Through several meta-analyses, the intervention literature suggests that the magnitude of behavioral change in response to a change intervention is, on average, half a standard deviation (Guzzo et al., 1985). Similarly, Macy and Izumi (1993) and Robertson and colleagues (1993a, 1993b) found, through different meta-analytic samples, that the interventions had a moderate effect on individual behavior.

Although these findings suggest that interventions can have a positive effect on behaviors, I was unable to find intervention studies that suggested a trajectory for how

and when behavior would align following an intervention. This is not so surprising given that there is a dearth of research examining how individuals change in organizational research (George & Jones, 2001; Pettigrew et al., 2001). However, in the change arena, one theory in particular stands out that can inform a possible trajectory for behavioral change called change-based momentum (henceforth, change momentum).

Change momentum refers to the energy used when taking a new trajectory (Jansen, 2004). Jansen suggests that if a change is going to occur, the energy for the old trajectory must be redirected, replaced and or overcome by the momentum going towards the new trajectory, (e.g., Greenwood & Hinings, 1988). Therefore, change momentum requires creating new routines and patterns of behavior, which require a break from old patterns to create the new patterns (Ford & Ford, 1994). Also, most importantly, the change momentum process occurs across time.

Although the theory was driven from the standpoint of the organization, there are two reasons it would still be appropriate for this discussion. First, it could be argued that the collective momentum from the employees make up a considerable portion of the organizational momentum, assuming that organizational change occurs through individual change (Woodman & Dewett, 2004). Also, although change momentum is an organizational variable, it is one that can be perceived, generated and maintained by the individual (Jansen, 2004), suggesting this would still bear relevance to how individual behavior changes over time. In fact, in Jansen's seminal piece on the topic, she examined how momentum for a change endeavor occurred through individuals within the organization. Also, given that Jansen made predictions for how change momentum alters

over time, I suggest that theoretically and conceptually change momentum serves as a great framework to consider the trajectory of behavioral alignment. Below is a summary of the theory.

When referring to time, Jansen (2004) suggests that change momentum is a dynamic element that entails six facets, which all have a reciprocal relationship with change momentum: social information, attentional processes, goal attainment, change-related interaction, commitment, and the trajectory gap. The facets are generally suggested to start more slowly, as the current energy is being driven toward the old initiative and must be changed toward the new initiative. For example, social information begins where the employees interpret and respond to each other to make sense of what they are about to experience. In another example, for the attentional process, the more individual attention is focused toward other tasks and events, the more energy it took to shift the attention toward the focal change. Therefore, taken together, it can be inferred that change momentum would start more slowly and pick up steam as time progresses. This can be attributed to the cyclical nature of the relationships between the six facets and change momentum. As each facet contributes to change momentum, change momentum also contributes back to the facet. As more of the facets are aligned with the given change, the momentum for change will pick up speed and will in turn affect the change with increased momentum.

Similarly, I predict the trajectory for behavioral alignment, will start out slow and gain momentum as time progresses. Given that the impetus for a given change initiative is generally driven by the senior management (Jansen, 2004); I argue that most

employees will generally know little about the upcoming change. As such, the employees will not have developed a strong schema for the change event (Lau & Woodman, 1995). However, as announcements are made and the intervention occurs, the behavioral momentum for the employees will begin to pick up speed. At this point, the employees will be faced with needing to change the direction of their energies to more closely match the new objectives, however, their thought patterns, behaviors and habits are all aligned with the old objective (Ford & Ford, 1994). Therefore, as employees begin to reconsider how the change looks in the intervention, they will slowly and tentatively begin to reallocate their energies toward the new agenda. However, this process will take some time. Therefore, I predict,

Hypothesis 20: Behavioral alignment will be low immediately following the intervention (T_2), and will slowly increase at an increasing rate as time passes (T_2-T_5).

In addition to understanding how behavior will align with the initiative, one focus of this study is to understand whether increasing line of sight can influence behavioral alignment. As such, I predict that a change in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions will moderate the trajectory of behavioral alignment such that employees with higher line of sight objectives and actions will behave more in-line with the change initiative and will improve their behaviors at a faster rate, suggesting an increase in the positive velocity and slope of behavioral alignment. In contrast, employees with lower line of sight actions will behave less in-line with the change initiative and within the time of the study will see a much smaller increase in behavioral alignment.

Given that employees with higher line of sight to the objectives are more likely to understand what the company is seeking to accomplish and, they are more likely to contribute to those objectives (Boswell, 2006), I argue that as an employee's line of sight objectives increases, so too do I expect that their behaviors will be more in-line with the initiative. This is because employees that have higher line of sight are more likely to perform discretionary behaviors that make a difference for the objective (e.g., Hatch & Dyer, 2004). Similarly, given that task-related behaviors are considered some of the more changeable behaviors (Woodman & Dewett, 2004), I expect that employees with higher line of sight objectives will also learn that they need to change their behaviors for the health of the organization and their job. These employees will be more capable of aligning their behaviors than those with low line of sight to the objectives because they will be more likely to behave consistent with the objective.

Also, given that to some nontrivial extent an employee must have some grasp of the actions that are needed to act consistent with an objective, it would only make sense that high line of sight actions, as opposed to low line of sight actions, would increase the velocity and slope of behavioral alignment. Research suggests that this would be the case as learning the necessary actions are important to actually performing the actions (e.g., Gagnon et al., 2008; Leonardin, 2007, 2009). Therefore, I predict

> *Hypothesis 21: A change in line of sight objectives will moderate the trajectory of behavioral alignment, such that employees with a higher change in line of sight objectives will behave more in line with the objective following the intervention (T_2), which will increase with greater velocity over time (T_2-T_5),*

whereas employees with a lower change in line of sight objectives will behave less in line with the new objective following the intervention (T_2), which will increase at a slower rate over time (T_2-T_5).

Hypothesis 22: A change in line of sight action will moderate the trajectory of behavioral alignment, such that employees with higher change in line of sight actions will behave more in line with the objective following the intervention (T_2), which will increase over time (T_2-T_5), whereas employees with lower change in line of sight actions will behave less in line with the new objective following the intervention (T_2), which will increase at a slower rate over time (T_2-T_5).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

In the last section, I proposed two different points of analysis. The first was to examine a pathway in which employees may align with a change initiative. Borrowing from the five core concepts of social cognitive theory, I suggested potential moderators to this relationship. Second, I examined possible trajectories through which employee knowledge may change during a new change initiative. I also suggested that as an employee increases line of sight, they would be more likely to align behaviorally. In order to understand whether or not these propositions are true, through this section, I will delineate how I assessed the models. I will begin with a discussion of my data collection procedures, following with an explanation of the measures. Lastly, I identify procedures that I used to analyze my data.

3.2 Participants and Procedure

Participants in this study worked for a fast food restaurant chain in the Midwestern United States. Since 2010, the restaurant chain had undertaken a large-scale change endeavor focusing on aligning employees and practices with key company interests. As the change endeavor shifted from executives to directors, it became clear, to both groups, that in order to accomplish one of the primary goals, a significant increase in sales, only one group of employees could accomplish the task, the cashiers.

Unfortunately, up to that point in time, internal data showed that cashiers were the lowest paid and least respected employees in the organization and most likely to

turnover. Every year, the organization would collect data on several variables ranging from job and pay satisfaction to perceived support, and the results clearly indicated that out of all employment categories, cashiers represented the group that was the lowest paid, least respected, and most likely to turnover. Interestingly, the fate of any given store's sales rested squarely on the shoulders of these employees. This is because, as is the case in any fast food company, customers mostly only interact with the person that takes their order. As a result, the company realized they needed to make a shift in how they treated and trained cashiers in order to achieve their new objective. As part of the overarching change endeavor, the organization looked to transform the context in which cashiers operated, while also providing increased empowerment and fostering increased awareness and engagement. As interventions were used to align the cashiers with the new initiative, the store culture began to shift. As the shift towards cashier empowerment began improving, the company still noticed several issues. One of the primary issues on the store side was that there was still a problem with order accuracy within the organization. This concern was seen as a fundamental problem how the cashiers perceived the customers. Therefore, the organization, as part of the overarching change endeavor, planned an intervention with cashiers from 53 pilot stores in the Midwest, aimed at transforming the way cashiers viewed the customer.

Given that all of the stores were within the same geographic area, the organization hosted centralized intervention meetings, with roughly between 30 and 50 cashiers per meeting. In total 176 of the 180 cashiers that participated in the intervention completed the survey (98% response rate). Each one-day intervention meeting was

hosted on a Monday or Tuesday, and these meetings were held for two consecutive weeks. The meeting was set up to have the employees identify their perspective toward customers and understand the impact that perceptions had on their interactions with customers. It also was aimed at exhibiting how a cashier's behaviors can ultimately affect the organization. The cashiers also heard from representatives across different constituencies within the organization, who shared their perspective toward customers, so the cashiers could gain an understanding of how they fit into the larger role of the organization. Following the identification of the problem, the change agent worked with the groups to develop a new perspective of the customers and asked cashiers to consider the types of behaviors could be done to benefit customers.

I collected longitudinal data from the employees at five different time intervals (See Figure 2). The first survey was provided immediately prior to the intervention and the second survey was provided immediately following the intervention with a paper and pencil style questionnaire. The purpose of this is to assess the effectiveness of how well the employees learned the change objective and ways to affect the objective through the intervention. Although this does not necessarily prove that the changes that occur are a result of the intervention, given the assessment directly before and after, it certainly aids in limiting external factors that may be at play.

After the intervention was complete, three more surveys were given to the cashiers, spaced out in two-week intervals from the date of their individual intervention session. The surveys were spaced out by two weeks because Leonardi (2007) found, through shadowing during an implementation study, that significant changes were

observed in his second shadow session, which was two weeks of the implementation. Also, provided that the organization needed to see results quickly, a two-week gap allowed different employees at least four or five work shifts in order to see changes in behavior.

The surveys were provided on a Monday, Tuesday, or Wednesday depending on the employee's first shift, two weeks following the intervention or the prior assessment. I did this to ensure that each employee was provided the survey within two weeks and two days following the training or prior assessment in attempt to minimize the error variance that can occur from extra days of learning. The surveys would have been offered on any shift within the first three days, however, all participants filled out the survey on the day the survey was first offered. These surveys were set up on company computers located toward the back of each store. The computers are standard and are used by employees to log in and log out of their shift and to take periodic surveys offered by the company. After each employee logged in following a break, they were prompted to take the survey before returning to work.

In addition to the surveys for the employees, I also collected a survey of supervisor ratings for behavioral alignment, and, I tracked behavioral alignment at four different times. The supervisor surveys corresponded with the employee surveys for Time 2, Time 3, Time 4 and Time 5. The supervisor surveys were always offered on the Friday following the employee survey. This provided a lag from the time of the intervention to ensure the employees had a chance to exhibit what may have been learned through the intervention or any team meeting that occurred during the week.

Overall, my goal was to assess whether the employees understood the new initiative (i.e., line of sight objectives) and how to execute the initiative (i.e., line of sight actions) and, whether changes in knowledge actually influenced behavioral change. Therefore, one aim of this study is to capture behavioral alignment and based on social cognitive theory, I believe, changes in knowledge would match changes in behavior.

As for measurement, before administering each questionnaire, all participants were notified that responses would be kept confidential. Given that employees begin to develop their change schema whenever an announcement is made about a change endeavor (Lau & Woodman, 1995), in the first questionnaire I assessed if the employees may have learned anything about the objective or how to impact the objective prior to the formal intervention. Also, through the first questionnaire, I captured several of the moderator variables (Frazier, Tix & Barron, 2004), locus of control, learning goal orientation, and self-efficacy. I excluded one moderator variable, valence, from the time one survey because the employees will likely not know what the change endeavor is about, so it would not make sense to ask how much they value the perceived outcomes from the organizational change initiative. Additionally, I collected self-concept clarity through this questionnaire.

Immediately following the intervention, the employees each had a chance to hear about the change and likely formulated their impressions on the expected value from participating, and therefore, I collect survey results for employee valence. Also, for the reasons listed above, the second, third, fourth and fifth surveys each had three repeated measures for line of sight actions, line of sight objectives, and self-concept clarity. The

third survey was administered two weeks after the change intervention and the remaining surveys were administered two weeks apart.

To decrease threats to internal validity, at this point, I introduce a nonequivalent dependent variable, following the suggestion of Coryn and Hobson (2011). The nonequivalent dependent variable is a variable that generally would not be affected by the intervention (or the change initiative more broadly) in the given time period, however, would respond to other environmental cues. For the purposes of this study, I examined self-concept clarity. Given it is theoretically unrelated to the variables in question and literature has suggested concept clarity does not readily change in the short-term (Campbell et al., 1996). If other environmental cues, such as a change in management or employee culture were causing the change, self-concept would be more likely to change with knowledge and behavior.

3.3 Measures

Below is a brief summary of the measures. A full list of the items can be found in Appendix C. Unless otherwise noted, participants rated all items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree)." I also measured reliability with an internal consistency rating called the alpha coefficient, or Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951).

Line of sight. Two of the focal constructs of interest for this study are line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Both measures were included on all of the cashier surveys.

Line of sight objectives. I measured line of sight objectives using a survey measure based on Boswell's (2000) measure as utilized by Gagnon and colleagues (2008). The line of sight objectives scale had five items and had a sufficient Cronbach's alpha rating ranging from $\alpha = .71$ at Time 1 to $\alpha = .84$ at Time 5. The line of sight objectives items were change context specific and sample items include, "The new strategy is about the customer experience"; "I understand why the company is moving toward improving the customer experience."

Line of sight actions. In addition to capturing the extent of knowledge an employee has about the new objective, I also measured the employees' knowledge of how to best impact the objective. I utilized a survey measure as developed by Gagnon and colleagues (2008) based on the conceptualization of Boswell and Boudreau (2001). The line of sight actions scale had five items and a sufficient Cronbach's alpha, which ranged from $\alpha = .74$ at Time 1 to $\alpha = .75$ at Time 5. Sample items include "By improving order accuracy, I can help improve the company's goals" and "Paying attention to customers as they walk in the door will help accomplish the organization's objective."

Locus of control. Locus of control was measured using Spector's (1988) shortened eight-item scale designed to measure locus of control in a work context. The measure was used in the Time 1 survey. The Cronbach's alpha was low $\alpha = .63$. Sample items for the scale include "If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it" and "People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it."

LMX. To measure leader-member exchange, I used Graen and Scandura's (1987) seven-item scale for leader-member exchange. The measure was included on the Time 1 survey. The Cronbach's alpha was strong $\alpha = .83$. Sample items include, "I know where I stand with my manager" and "My working relationship with my supervisor is exceptional".

Learning goal orientation. Learning goal orientation was measured using five items from Vandewalle's (1997) 13-item measure for learning goal orientation for a work setting. The results of a confirmatory factor analysis, reliability analysis, factor analysis and nomological network analysis all supported the efficacy of the full instrument. However, several studies have also focused on just a smaller part of the scale (c.f., Porter, 2008). The measure was included on the Time 1 survey. Sample items include, "I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge" and "I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills." The estimated reliability for the scale was $\alpha = .83$.

Self-efficacy. To measure self-efficacy I used the new eight-item measure for general self-efficacy scale (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001). I chose this scale because it had exhibited high content validity, construct validity, high reliability and multi-dimensionality. This measure was included on the Time 1 survey. Sample items for the scale include, "When facing difficult tasks, I am certain I will accomplish them" and "I am confident I can perform effectively on many different tasks." General self-efficacy had an estimated reliability of $\alpha = .87$.

Valence. To assess outcome valence, I used three items designed to assess valence from the Zaniboni, Fraccaroli, Truxillo, Bertolino and Bauer's (2011) T-VIE scale developed for a training context. I made slight changes to the items to more closely match the context of this study and added some more general items to match the change context. I assessed three additional items to more accurately examine specific expected outcomes of the change endeavor once the change initiative is identified. In order to ensure the employees were providing responses based on their valence of the current intervention, the survey was included in the Time 2 survey. Sample items include, "Given the outcomes I expect from the change endeavor, I want to improve my technical/practical knowledge in my job" and "I feel it is important to take part in this change endeavor in order to strengthen my skills." The estimated reliability for the scale is $\alpha = .85$.

Behavioral alignment. I assess behavioral alignment similar to Gagnon and colleagues (2008), which was derived from Boswell and Boudreau's conceptualization (2001). To do so, I spoke with the change agents to understand what behaviors were expected that match the initiative. I used supervisor ratings to eliminate single-source bias and to allay social desirability. The scale had five items. Sample items from the scale were "This employee continues to look for ways to improve the customer experience" and "This employee works to meet customer needs." This measure was included on all of the supervisor surveys. Estimated reliability ranged from .83 at Time 2 to .87 at Time 5.

Self-concept clarity. In order to reduce the threats to internal validity, I utilized a nonequivalent dependent variable (Coryn & Hobson, 2011). Given that the literature suggests an individual's self-concept clarity is more stable, a change in self-concept may be attributed to something other than the initiative. Therefore, to measure self-concept I use a twelve-item scale as developed and validated by Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavallee, and Lehman (1996). Reliability for the scale ranged from $\alpha = .72$ in Time 1 to $\alpha = .82$ in Time 5. his measure was included on all cashier surveys. Sample item includes "Beliefs about myself seem to change very frequently."

3.4 Analysis Strategy

As outlined in chapter 2, this study examines how employees align with a new change initiative. Based on the research questions and hypotheses that are being examined in this dissertation, there are three types of analyses that are performed for this study. The first analysis examines a potential process in which line of sight objectives may influence line of sight actions, which ultimately is expected to influence behavioral alignment. To examine this set of hypotheses, I use a traditional approach: structural equation modeling. (SEM). I follow the guidelines for moderated mediation as outlined by Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007) for a moderation effect affecting the first path in the mediation process. Below I will outline in greater detail how I used SEM.

The remainder of the hypotheses predicts that individuals will change over time, which requires the use of a growth-modeling framework. Growth models examine how a unit may change over time and differences in the pattern of change (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). In particular, I use latent growth modeling (LGM) to test the hypotheses. LGM

offers several advantages to alternate growth modeling techniques. First and foremost, LGM allows me to test my interest in dynamic relationships across multiple variables over time (Ployhart, Van Iddekinge & MacKenzie, 2011). This is because LGM allows me to model change both within and between each variable. A second advantage of LGM is that it allows me to generate latent factors to represent the growth trajectory and acceleration trajectory over time. Because the dataset is so large, this simplifies the analysis. Below I will explain how I use LGM.

Although more traditional LGM can be used for most of the trajectory hypotheses, the last two hypotheses and the control variable analysis require a special form of LGM called multiple-indicator latent growth modeling (MLGM; Chan, 1998; McArdle & Epstein, 1987; Meredith & Tisak, 1990; Willett & Sayer, 1994). This method provides advantages to traditional approaches of analyzing change because MLGM does not rely on repeated-measures analysis and difference scores (Chan, 1998). MLGM is an extension of latent growth modeling where latent variables are generated to model multiple indicators, which are then utilized in a structural equation model to examine the change in the change of the variables. I will describe in more detail how I use MLGM in my study below.

In addition to the above analyses, for all SEM analysis, it is important to identify how well the data fits the proposed model. To capture this, I utilized four fit indices: the chi-square goodness of fit test, the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990); the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990) and the standardized root

mean square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995). Below I explicate how each analysis is used in this dissertation.

3.4.1 Structural equation modeling (SEM)

Hypotheses 1 and 2, together, examine a simple path model between three variables. Because the premise of the study is to examine the notion of alignment, it will be important to assess each variable at the appropriate time period. I examined the relationships for both line of sight variables and behavioral alignment after the slopes have stabilized. Most of the change in line of sight objectives occurred between Time 1 and 2, I examine line of sight objectives at Time 3. Similarly, because most of the change in line of sight actions occurred in Time 4, I examined line of sight actions at Time 5. To understand how these variables predict behavior, I must use the assessment at Time 5. Because I am dealing with analyzing a path, I use Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in Mplus 7 (Muthen & Muthen, 2012). Further, to assess whether the proposed moderators, strengthen or weaken the mediated relationship, I conduct a moderated mediation analyses following Preacher and colleagues (2007) and Edwards and Lambert (2007).

3.4.2 Latent growth modeling

The next group of hypotheses examines how a variable changes over time and potential moderators to the change. Consistent with prior research (e.g., Ployhart et al., 2011; Van Iddekinge, Ferris, Perrewé, Perryman, Blass, Heetderks, 2009), to accomplish this, I develop three types of latent variables. The first latent variable represents the initial state of each variable, which is referred to as the latent intercept. In order to

generate the latent intercept, I fixed all of the factor loadings of the focal variable to 1. The second latent variable represents the linear rate of change for each variable, called the latent slope. I specify the linear form by fixing all of the factor loadings for the focal variable to equal 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 in chronological order based on the time period the data was collected. Third, a latent variable is created to represent the acceleration rate of change for each variable, called the latent quadratic term. To specify the quadratic term, I fixed all of the factor loadings of the focal variable to 0, 1, 4, 9, 16, and 25, as needed, in chronological order based on the time period the data was collected. Therefore, each variable has a representation of growth across several variables. Also, consistent with prior research (e.g., Ployhart et al., 2011; Van Iddekinge et al., 2009), I fixed all factor loadings to 1 and all residual covariances between consecutive measures of the same variable were included.

Tests of the hypotheses then are determined by the latent slope and quadratic factors. More specifically, when examining the trajectory hypotheses, I examine whether the latent growth variables are significant. The latent slope and quadratic terms represent the trend for each variable and whether that trend is increasing or decreasing and accelerating or decelerating, and it also represents the strength of the relationship (c.f. Chan, 1998; Willett & Sayer, 1994). In addition to examining the trajectory, by itself, I also examine whether several variables moderate the trajectories over time. In order to test the efficacy of the moderators, I draw a path between the moderator and the latent intercept, the latent slope, and latent quadratic term. A significant relationship between

the moderator and a latent growth term indicates that the moderator does change the trajectory of the variables.

3.4.3 Multiple- indicator latent growth modeling

The last set of hypotheses examines how the change in trajectory for certain variables affects the change in the outcome over time. To accomplish this task, similar to LGM, I developed latent variables to represent the latent intercept, latent slope, and latent quadratic term. After generating the latent variables, I use a structural equation modeling framework to relate the latent intercept, latent slope, and latent quadratic term for the predictors to the latent intercept, latent slope, and latent quadratic term for the outcomes. Similarly, to control for the change in the growth trajectory, I generated latent variables for self-concept clarity and draw a path from the latent variables for self-concept clarity to the latent growth variables for the outcomes. The following chapter reports the results from this analysis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1 Results

The means, standard deviations, and correlations can be seen in Table 5. Prior to the examination of the hypotheses, I first fit the models with the inclusion of the control variable. The trajectory for self-concept clarity failed to demonstrate significant relationships with any substantive trajectory variables in the model. More importantly, as expected, self-concept clarity did not change over time as the latent intercept and slope for self-concept clarity are both equal to 0. When included in the model, only the initial latent intercept for self-concept clarity was significantly related to the initial latent intercept for the line of sight variables. However, the latent intercept and the latent slope were not related to any of the change variables or the outcome variables. In fact, the inclusion of self-concept clarity had a negative effect on model fit, for every single model that was run for the analyses. Therefore, following the recommendation of Van Iddekinge and colleagues (2009), in the interest of parsimony, which is a concern provided the large number of time dependent indicators and latent terms, I did not include self-concept clarity in the final models. The remainder of the section will examine the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 states that line of sight objectives will be positively related to line of sight actions and Hypothesis 2 indicates that line of sight actions will mediate the relationship between line of sight objectives and behavioral alignment. The results for the entire process model analysis can be found in Table 6. The results suggest that line

of sight objectives is significantly related to line of sight actions ($\beta_1 = .34$, $p < .05$) but not behavioral alignment ($\beta_2 = .12$, *ns*). Also, line of sight actions is significantly related to behavioral alignment ($\beta_3 = .18$, $p < .05$). Further, the results suggest there is an indirect effect (.10, $p < .05$) between line of sight objectives and behavioral alignment. These results suggest that both Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 receive support. In total, 15% of the variance is explained in line of sight actions and 6% of behavioral alignment.

Hypothesis 3 posits that line of sight objectives will start low and spike following the intervention (i.e., Time 1 – Time 2), which will level off over time (Time 2 – Time 5). To test the hypothesis, I fit the model to one line (i.e., a latent slope), between Time 1 and Time 2; and, a quadratic function (both a latent slope and a latent quadratic term) for periods between Time 2 and Time 5 (Flora, 2008; Bollen & Curran, 2006) as can be seen in Figure 3. The results for all of the latent growth analyses can be found in Table 7. The model has excellent fit ($\chi^2 = 5.085$, *ns*; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .01; SRMR= .08). The non-significant chi-square test suggests that the estimated model is not significantly different than the sample, suggesting very strong fit. The growth between Time 1 and Time 2 was significant and positive ($b_1 = .86$, $p < .05$), suggesting there is a significant increase in value between the two points in time. These results support the first half of Hypothesis 3 that there is a spike in knowledge through the intervention. Further, the results show that line of sight objectives is lower prior to the intervention than it is in each of the time periods following the intervention. This suggests support for the initial spike from the intervention. Further, when examining the trajectory for Time 2 through Time 5, the results show a significant linear ($b_2 = .45$, $p < .05$) and quadratic trajectory

(b_3 = -.10, $p < .05$), suggesting that the trajectory does not level off after the intervention, but instead that the employees continue to learn the objectives (positive slope) at a slower pace (negative quadratic term). Thus, Hypothesis 3 received partial support.

Hypothesis 4 notes that line of sight actions will be low prior to the intervention, which will spike following the intervention and will slightly decrease over time. However, the fit statistics for the quadratic model are poor (e.g., CFI = .48; RMSEA = .55). When graphing the results, it becomes clear that a quadratic model is not sufficient because there are two changes in trajectory. There are several potential models that can be used in this instance, but the most popular models are cubic and piecewise (e.g., Bollen & Curran, 2006; Flora, 2008; Muthen & Muthen, 2012). When considering the two potential models, there are a number of things to consider. However, the first and most important piece for this research is the ability to interpret the results. Unfortunately, interpreting the cubic model offers a major complication, whereas one of the primary benefits of a piecewise model is simplicity of interpretation (Bollen & Curran, 2006). Because the purpose of this set of hypotheses is to evaluate a change occurring at a particular point in time (Flora, 2008), the piecewise latent trajectory model will be ideal for this purpose. The piecewise model is a model where distinct lines are used to model the time between changes. Because there are two slope changes in the model, I fit three lines to the model (i.e., between Time 1 and Time 3, Time 3 and Time 4, and Time 4 and Time 5). Each slope change is captured with a different line, otherwise referred to as a piece. This allows me to assess at what time periods significant change occurs. When fitting the data to the piecewise model (See Figure 4), I found great fit (χ^2 = 5.11, *ns*; CFI

= 1.00; RMSEA = .01; SRMR= .07). However, contrary to the hypothesis, the spike in line of sight actions did not occur between Time 1 and Time 2, as the slope between Time 1 and Time 3 was modest and flat (b_1 = .22, $p < .05$). Rather the spike occurred between Time 3 and Time 4 (b_2 = .71, $p < .05$), suggesting no support for the first part of the hypothesis. Further, contrary to the hypothesis, line of sight actions did not decrease over time, instead it increased between Time 3 and Time 4 (b_2 = .71, $p < .05$), at which point, the slope levelled off (b_3 = -.01, *ns*). Thus Hypothesis 4 did not receive support.

Hypothesis 5 predicts that locus of control will moderate the line of sight objectives trajectory such that there will be a higher peak between Time 1 and Time 2 and that the trajectory will increase slightly over time for employees with high locus of control. The results can be found in Table 7. For the first part of the hypothesis, the moderation effect was significant and employees with higher locus of control saw a steeper slope from Time 1 to Time 2 (b_1 = 1.03, $p < .05$). These results provide support for the first part of the hypothesis (See Figure 5). Interestingly, although not hypothesized, those with higher locus of control had lower starting points than those with higher locus of control (b_0 = -.40, $p < .05$). Moving to the second part of the hypothesis, when looking at the trajectories from Time 2 through Time 5, it can be seen that locus of control does moderate the line of sight objectives trajectory. However, the moderation effect was different than proposed. Contrary to the prediction, the slope for Time 2 through Time 5 is lower for those with high locus of control (b_2= -.27, $p < .10$) but their line of sight accelerates faster (b_3 = .06, $p < .10$). Although locus of control did moderate line of sight objectives, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 6 states that locus of control will moderate the trajectory for line of sight actions such that high locus of control will be characterized by a higher peak that increases over time, whereas low locus of control employees will be characterized a lower peak that decreases over time. As can be seen in Table 7, the first part of the hypothesis did receive some support as locus of control was significantly related to the change in trajectory from Time 1 to Time 3 ($b_1 = .26$; $p < .05$). It should be noted that because the change is significant for the first piece of line of sight actions, it actually indicates that the slope is significantly different for both Time 1 to Time 2 and Time 2 to Time 3. Although individuals with higher locus of control showed more learning over the entire trajectory, the growth after Time 3 was not significant ($b_2 = .05$, *ns*; $b_3 = .08$, *ns*). Interestingly, similar to above, locus of control was negatively related to the latent intercept ($b_0 = -.40$; $p < .05$), which suggests that high locus of control employees had lower starting points than low locus of control employees (See Figure 6). Hypothesis 6 received partial support.

Hypothesis 7 states that locus of control will moderate the strength of the relationship between the line of sight variables such that high locus of control will strengthen the positive relationship and low locus of control will weaken the relationship. The results can be found in Table 6. Locus of control does not moderate the mediated relationship ($\beta_3 = -.31$, *ns*) of line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Thus Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

Hypothesis 8 states that high LMX will moderate the trajectory of line of sight objectives with no effect on the intervention and increased line of sight objectives over

time, whereas employees with low LMX have a level slope over time. The results are outlined in Table 7. Contrary to the expectation (See Figure 7), LMX did moderate the trajectory between Time 1 and Time 2 ($b_1 = 1.01$, $p < .05$), such that employees with high LMX learned considerably more than those with low LMX through the intervention. Further, LMX moderates the trajectory for line of sight objectives following the intervention (linear: $b_2 = -.264$, $p < .05$; quadratic: $b_3 = .068$, $p < .05$), however, the slope was smaller for those with high LMX and higher for those with low LMX. Although both groups did have positive line of sight objectives trajectories, employees with low LMX had a more positive slope and a slower acceleration than employees with high LMX after the intervention. Again, similar to above, the latent intercept was negative, suggesting that those with high LMX had a lower starting point than those with low LMX ($b_0 = -.40$; $p < .05$). Ultimately, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Hypothesis 9 states that LMX will not moderate line of sight actions during the period of the intervention, but will moderate the trajectory for line of sight actions following the intervention, such that high LMX will be characterized by increased line of sight actions over time, whereas low LMX will be characterized by diminishing line of sight actions over time. As can be seen in Table 7, in response to the intervention, LMX was found to moderate the slope between Time 1 and Time 3 ($b_1 = .22$, $p < .05$), suggesting that employees with high LMX experienced more learning than those with low LMX (see Figure 8). Further, LMX did moderate the second piece, between Time 3 and Time 4 ($b_2 = .32$, $p < .05$). However, LMX did not moderate the final period

following growth (b_3 = .07; *ns*). This suggests that employees with high LMX learned at a much greater pace between Time 1 and Time 4, but both groups levelled off in the time following. Employees with high LMX had a lower starting point than employees with low LMX (b_0 = -.46; $p < .05$). Overall, Hypothesis 9 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 10 states that LMX will moderate the strength of the relationship between the line of sight variables such that high LMX will strengthen the positive relationship and low LMX will weaken the relationship. The results can be found in Table 6. LMX does not moderate the mediated relationship (β_3 = .28, *ns*) of line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Thus Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

Hypothesis 11 states that valence will moderate the trajectory of line of sight objectives such that higher valence will produce a greater peak through the intervention that will increase over time, whereas low valence will produce a lower spike that decreases over time. As can be seen in Table 7, employees with high valence saw a significant difference in the spike that occurred between Time 1 and Time 2 (b_1 = 1.59, $p < .05$), such that employees with high valence learned considerably more than those with low valence. Further, valence also moderated the trajectory of line of sight objectives (linear: b_2= -.36, $p < .05$; quadratic: b_3 = .09, $p < .05$). However, similar to the cases above, the slope is negative and the quadratic term is positive, suggesting that high valence employees had less learning at a faster pace than low valence employees following the intervention. Figure 9 shows the moderation. Similar to above, employees with low valence had lower starting points than employees with high valence (b_0 = -.69; $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 11 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 12 states that valence will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions such that higher valence will produce a greater spike through the intervention that will increase over time, whereas low valence will produce a lower spike that decreases over time. As can be seen in Table 7, similar to the prediction, higher valence employees did have a steeper spike though the intervention (b_1 = .22, $p < .05$), however they had lower starting points (b_0 = -.51; $p < .05$). Also, valence moderated the period of growth from Time 3 to Time 4 (b_2 = .60, $p < .05$), but not the period following growth Time 4 to Time 5 (b_3 = -.02; *ns*). Overall, the trajectories for both sets of employees improved from Time 1 to Time 4, at which point the trajectories levelled off (see Figure 10). Therefore, Hypothesis 12 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 13 states that valence will moderate the strength of the relationship between the line of sight variables such that high valence will strengthen the positive relationship and low valence will weaken the relationship. The results can be seen in in Table 6. Valence does not moderate the mediated relationship (β_3 = -.04, *ns*) of line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Thus, Hypothesis 13 was not supported.

Hypothesis 14 states that learning goal orientation will moderate the line of sight objectives trajectory such that higher learning goal orientation will result in a higher peak that increases over time, whereas low learning goal orientation will have a lower peak that decreases over time. As can be seen in Table 7, the results show that learning goal orientation moderates the line of sight objectives trajectory through the intervention (b_1 = 1.11, $p < .05$) such that employees with high learning goal orientation saw a greater initial spike than employees with low learning orientation (see Figure 11), which

supports for the first part of the hypothesis. Also, learning goal orientation moderated the trajectory of line of sight objectives following the intervention (linear: b_2= -.49, $p < .05$; quadratic: b_3 = .12, $p < .05$). Although both groups did have positive line of sight objective trajectories following the intervention, employees with low learning goal orientation had a more positive slope and a slower acceleration than employees with high learning goal orientation. Similar to above, employees with high learning goal orientation had lower starting points (b_0 = -.39; $p < .05$). Overall, Hypothesis 14 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 15 states that learning goal orientation will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions such that higher learning goal orientation will produce a greater spike through the intervention that will increase over time, whereas low learning goal orientation will produce a lower spike that decreases over time. As can be seen in Table 7, learning orientation did moderate the trajectory of the slope though the intervention and the period following the intervention (b_1 = .21, $p < .05$) supporting the first part of the hypothesis (see Figure 12). Further, learning goal orientation also moderated the period of growth from Time 3 to Time 4 (b_2 = .32, $p < .05$), but not the period following growth Time 4 to Time 5 (b_3 = .01; *ns*). Overall, the trajectories for both sets of employees improved from Time 1 to Time 4, at which point the trajectories levelled off. Also, employees high in learning goal orientation had a lower starting point than those with low learning goal orientation (b_0 = -.46; $p < .05$). Hypothesis 15 received partial support.

Hypothesis 16 states that learning goal orientation will moderate the line of sight variables such that high learning goal orientation will strengthen the positive relationship and low learning goal orientation will weaken the relationship. The results can be seen in Table 6. Learning goal orientation does not moderate the mediated relationship (β_3 = .44, *ns*) of line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Thus Hypothesis 16 was not supported.

Hypothesis 17 states that self-efficacy will moderate the line of sight objectives trajectory such that higher self-efficacy will result in a higher peak that increases over time, whereas low self-efficacy will have a lower peak that decreases over time. The results, from Table 7, show that self-efficacy moderates the line of sight objectives trajectory through the intervention (b_1 = 1.15, $p < .05$) such that employees with high self-efficacy saw a greater spike that occurred between Time 1 and Time 2 (See Figure 13). Also, self-efficacy moderated the trajectory of line of sight objectives following the intervention (linear: β_2= -.60, $p < .05$; quadratic: β_3 = .16, $p < .05$). Both groups did had positive line of sight objective trajectories following the intervention, however, employees with higher self-efficacy had a less positive slope and a faster acceleration than employees with high self-efficacy. Similar to the cases above, employees with higher self-efficacy had a lower starting point (b_0 = -.37; $p < .05$). Hypothesis 17 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 18 states that self-efficacy will moderate the trajectory of line of sight actions such that higher self-efficacy will produce a greater spike through the intervention that will increase over time, whereas low self-efficacy will produce a lower

spike that decreases over time. As can be seen in Table 7, self-efficacy did moderate the trajectory of the slope in the time of the intervention and the time period following the intervention (b_1 = .34, $p < .05$). Interestingly, although the spike was considerable, self-efficacy did not moderate the trajectory for line of sight actions following Time 3, with no significant effects from Time 3 to Time 4 (b_2 = .06, *ns*) and no significant effects from Time 4 to Time 5 (b_3 = .01; *ns*). Overall, the trajectories for both sets of employees improved from Time 1 to Time 3, at which point the trajectories levelled off (See Figure 14). Also, employees with higher self-efficacy had lower starting points and higher ending points (b_0 = -.46; $p < .05$), suggesting that they acquired more knowledge through the intervention. Therefore, Hypothesis 18 received partial support.

Hypothesis 19 states that self-efficacy will moderate the line of sight variables such that high self-efficacy will strengthen the positive relationship and low self-efficacy will weaken the relationship. The results are in Table 6. Self-efficacy does not moderate the mediated relationship (a_3 = -.26, *ns*) of line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. Thus Hypothesis 19 was not supported.

Hypothesis 20 states that behavioral alignment will start in the time following the intervention (Time 2) and will increase at an increasing rate (Time 2- Time 5). To test this model, I fit the data to a quadratic function. The fit statistics suggest that the growth does follow a quadratic function (χ^2 =4.5, *ns*; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .08; SRMR= .01). However, the shape is an inverted U (linear: b_1= 1.77, $p < .05$; quadratic: b_2= -.55, $p < .05$), suggesting behavior does not slowly increase with momentum, instead that

behavior has a steep slope with decreasing acceleration. Therefore, Hypothesis 20 was not supported.

Although Hypothesis 20 is not supported due to an inaccurate prediction in model shape, Hypotheses 21 and 22, examine whether a change in line of sight objectives and a change in line of sight actions moderate the trajectory of behavioral alignment over time. Therefore, these relationships can still be tested. In order to examine the next two hypotheses, I examine whether the latent growth terms are related to the latent growth terms for behavioral alignment. See Table 8 for complete results.

To examine Hypotheses 21 and 22, I ran the full model, examining whether a change in line of sight objectives influences a change in line of sight actions or behavioral alignment, and whether line of sight actions influences a change in behavioral alignment. I begin by fitting the model to the data. Results suggest the model fit is good ($\chi^2 = 73$, $p < .05$; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .06; SRMR= .09). The latent slope and quadratic terms for line of sight objectives predicted between 27% and 72% of the variance for the latent slopes for line of sight actions. In turn, the latent terms for line of sight objectives and line of sight actions predicted between 23% and 25% of the variance in the latent intercept and latent slopes for behavioral alignment. Consequently, this model exhibited good fit and exhibited considerable explanatory power.

Table 8 displays the path coefficients for the model. I first examine whether the latent intercepts are significant and whether the latent growth paths are significant. Significant latent intercepts suggest that the initial points for the variables are related, whereas a significant relationship between latent growth terms suggest that a change in

one variable is related to a change in another. When looking at the latent intercepts, we find a relationship with line of sight objectives and line of sight actions (-.57, $p < .05$) and behavioral alignment (-.19, $p < .05$). However, there is no relationship between the latent intercepts for line of sight actions and behavioral alignment (.01, *ns*). Interestingly, 69% of the variance for the line of sight latent intercept was explained by the data, whereas the starting point for the predictors can explain only 8% of the variance for the latent intercept for the behavioral alignment. Overall, these results suggest a relationship between line of sight objectives and behavioral alignment, however they do not suggest a change in one variable is related to a change in the other variable.

Therefore, to examine the changing relationships, I next examine the latent growth terms. To do so, I examine the effect of the latent slope and quadratic analyses. As Table 8 notes, the slope-to-slope paths are mostly significant, particularly for the slopes that represent actual change in the data. The latent slope and quadratic term for line of sight objectives is significantly related to the initial slope for line of sight actions (slope: -.39, $p < .05$; quad: -1.19, $p < .05$) and the change in slope from Time 3 to Time 4 (slope: 2.35, $p < .05$; quad: 5.62, $p < .05$). However, neither the slope nor quadratic term predict the last latent slope for line of sight actions (slope: .38, *ns*; quad: .02, *ns*). These results suggest that the change in line of sight objectives is significantly related to the change in line of sight actions. Interestingly, the change in line of sight objectives predicts 32% of the variance in the change in the slope during the intervention.

I next turn the attention to examining the hypotheses and behavioral alignment. The change in latent slope for line of sight objectives is significantly related to the

change in slope for behavioral alignment (-.94, $p < .05$) and the quadratic term for behavioral alignment (.22, $p < .05$). Similarly, the change in the quadratic term for line of sight objectives is also significantly related to the change in the slope for behavioral alignment (-1.72, $p < .05$) and the change in the quadratic term for behavioral alignment (.42, $p < .10$). These results suggest that the change in line of sight objectives is related to a change in behavioral alignment. Thus, we have support for Hypothesis 21.

Interestingly, the initial slope for line of sight actions is unrelated to both the slope for behavioral alignment (.37, ns) and the quadratic term for behavioral alignment (-.09, *ns*). However, the second slope, where most of the growth occurs is significantly related to the slope (.29, $p < .05$) and the quadratic term for behavioral alignment (-.07, $p < .05$). Similarly, the final change in growth for line of sight actions is related to the change in slope for behavioral alignment (.51, $p < .05$) and the change in the quadratic term (-.10, $p < .05$). Generally speaking, the positive effect sizes between the latent terms for line of sight actions and the slope of behavioral alignment suggests that an increase in line of sight actions will lead to an steeper slope in behavioral alignment. Similarly, the negative effect sizes between the latent terms for line of sight actions and the quadratic change in behavioral alignment, suggest that as the change for line of sight actions increases, the rate at which change occurs decreases. Therefore, the results provide support for Hypothesis 22.

A summary of the results for the hypotheses can be seen in Table 9. Interestingly, the table indicates that although the mediation was significant in the process model, the moderators were all non-significant. Further, the same variables were significant

moderators to the shape of the line of sigh objectives and line of sight actions trajectories. Lastly, line of sight objectives and line of sight actions were both important in predicting the shape of behavioral alignment.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Chapter Overview

In this dissertation, I theoretically proposed and empirically tested a model to better understand employee alignment with a change initiative. This study offered some interesting findings. To better understand these results, I discuss the general findings of this dissertation and offer potential theoretical and practical implications. I follow with a discussion of limitations and potential future research endeavors. Lastly, I offer general concluding remarks.

5.2 General Discussion and Summary

Despite the importance of employee alignment to an organizational change initiative, little research has examined the process through which individuals change to match an agenda. To examine this issue, this dissertation examined the phenomena in two separate parts. The first part examines a pathway through which line of sight may influence behavioral alignment. More specifically, and consistent with past theory and research (e.g., Gagnon et al., 2008), I suggest that line of sight actions mediates the relationship between line of sight objectives and behavioral alignment. However, I add to past literature by suggesting five moderators based on social cognitive theory. This more traditional model examines the notion of alignment by suggesting that line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, measured at a single point in time, can predict behavioral alignment. The premise is that this snapshot in time helps us understand alignment.

In regards to the process model hypotheses, the empirical examination found partial support. Based on the results from 176 cashiers in an international fast food restaurant, both line of sight objectives and line of sight actions were found to significantly predict behavioral alignment, explaining 25% of the variance in the change in behavior. Although the results did suggest that line of sight objectives was related to line of sight actions and that they were both important for predicting behavioral alignment, the moderation hypotheses did not receive any support. Based on social cognitive theory, I used five variables to predict potential moderation to the mediated relationship noted above. However, none of those variables supported the model. These results suggest that although social cognitive theory may be important in predicting the acquisition of knowledge, it was not important in predicting what people do with the knowledge once it is learned.

The second part of the study examines the trajectories for how an employee's line of sight objectives, line of sight actions, and behavioral alignment change following a change intervention and how the trajectories may influence one another. To examine what may influence these constructs, based on social cognitive theory, I suggest potential moderators to the trajectory of line of sight objectives and actions. The premise of the second part of the study assesses alignment by investigating how the trajectories for line of sight objectives and line of sight actions change over time. The theory developed through the dissertation suggests that employee alignment would improve over time through improved line of sight objectives, line of sight actions, and behavioral alignment. The second part of the study also received considerable support from the

data. Although the shape of all trajectories were not confirmed based on the a-priori hypotheses the data did suggest that line of sight to the objectives improved immediately through the intervention and line of sight to the actions improved sometime after returning to the work roles. Further, the moderators were all significant in predicting the strength of the curves and lines. To better understand these results, it helps to examine each trajectory separately.

For line of sight objectives, as predicted, the shapes of the curves were found to be curvilinear, where most of the learning occurred during the time period of the intervention. Interestingly, however, the results for the moderator analysis indicated that the greatest increases in line of sight objectives came from individuals with the lowest starting points. This may not seem so surprising, because individuals with lower starting points have the potential to learn more. However, when looking at the growth trajectories over time, employees with low starting points for line of sight objectives, tended to end with higher end points than employees with high starting points. Further, as can be seen in the figures of most moderators, employees with lower starting values for line of sight objectives, generally, continued to learn about the objectives over time. In contrast, employees lower starting values for line of sight objectives, started to see a decrease or leveling-off of line of sight objectives towards the last time period. These results can be interpreted in several ways. One perspective would suggest that those with more knowledge prior to the intervention put less effort into learning. Although this may be the most straightforward explanation, it also does not explain why an individual that knows more would not put effort into learning or would learn less over time. In contrast

to the initial perspective, it could be that learning is, to some extent, based on the individual's ability to identify what they do not know, so that they can identify what still needs to be learned. This explanation suggests that individuals with lower starting points, may not actually know less, but may be more capable of identifying what they do not know, as represented by their lower starting points. Consequently, these individuals with greater ability to identify their limitations may be able to learn more. This explanation would suggest that it is easier to learn and move past limitations for employees that understand what they know and what they do not know. Future research to examine this phenomenon in greater detail would be warranted.

Another interesting point pertains to the latent slopes for the moderator groups. At first glance, these results seems to contradict social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001), which suggests the individuals high on the five facets will learn faster and learn more. However, the moderation results have a negative impact on the slope following the intervention. These results suggest that higher levels for each of the five factors is negatively related to the growth of the slope following the intervention, which seems to be in stark contrast to social cognitive theory. A deeper look shows that the groups high on the factors of social cognitive theory actually learned considerably more during the intervention and as a result, because there was a finite amount of information for the groups to learn, once the high moderator groups learned the objectives, there was less available information to learn in the time following the intervention. This could provide an explanation for the negative latent slope values for Time 2 through Time 5. In this instance, where there is less information to be learned, it could be argued that social

cognitive theory would actually predict a lower slope, with a higher acceleration for those that rank high in the five facets for social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1968). To this point, the results were supportive as the latent quadratic term was positive and significant for all of the moderators suggested by the five facets of social cognitive theory.

In addition to the line of sight objectives trajectory, there were some interesting findings for the line of sight actions trajectory. The line of sight actions trajectory was different than hypothesized. Although there was a spike in knowledge for some employees during the intervention, the largest growth, in general, came between Time 3 and Time 4. These results imply that, on average, line of sight actions saw greater increases for employees after they got back into their work roles. These results are interesting and provide some support to the theory provided above suggesting the importance of information-seeking following the introduction of the initiative (e.g., Leonardi, 2007). However, in contrast to the hypothesis, there is no evidence for a contrast effect (Louis, 1980) because the trend for the line of sight actions increased across every time period, suggesting going back to work roles did not actually slow learning.

Another reason these results are particularly interesting is because the intervention actually contained an entire segment dedicated to cashier discussion of potential actions that could be taken to meet the objectives. However, the survey results suggested that, in general, little learning on how to affect the objectives occurred during the intervention. There could be several explanations for these findings. First, it could be

that although the discussion took place, the employees received little information. However, this is unlikely as the session was set up such that the employees were considering appropriate actions that could be taken in small groups with change agents listening and providing support. It could also be that employees were unable to make the cognitive connection between the behavioral discussions and how that made sense considering the objectives. Understanding what causes the ability for employees to connect divergent information could be valuable to better understand if this was the effect.

Yet another explanation could be related to a failure to transfer information across contexts. In the training literature, transfer of training refers to the effects of learning on subsequent performance (e.g., Holding, 1991). It could simply be that the intervention failed to ensure employees were ready and motivated to transfer the learned information to the work context. Although this explanation may be the most intuitive because of the ease in interpretation for transfer of training, transfer is not as simple in a change intervention context as it is in a training context. Change interventions are generally more complex and have a high likelihood of confusion (Vaara, 2003). To this point, the expectation was that employees were expected to not only learn the process changes, but also the changes related to responding to customer needs. Therefore, line of sight actions was complicated and covered a larger base of potential actions. This twist could have potentially led to increased complications of interpretation and eventually problems with transfer. Future research would be valuable to understand the role of transfer in developing line of sight actions in a change intervention.

It is also important to note that although the shape of the line of sight actions trajectory is not consistent with the hypotheses, the curve was moderated. In fact, all of the moderators were significantly related to at least one latent growth term for line of sight actions. For example, all of the moderators are significant and positively related to the first latent slope for line of sight actions. This suggests that high levels for the five core concepts had greater growth than low levels during the intervention and the immediate period following the intervention. This makes sense as the intervention provides an isolated situation where employees are only asked to learn, with no other expectations. In contrast, when people get back to their work roles, there is an expectation that they learn while also performing their job, which can make for a more difficult environment to reflect on the learning.

Ultimately, the results suggest that employees high on the five factors of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001) experienced a larger spike through the intervention and the improved knowledge continued in the time period that followed the intervention. Taken together that all five moderators significantly affected both trajectories for line of sight objectives and line of sight actions, the results suggest that social cognitive theory can be important in predicting the changeability of individual's knowledge. This provides support for social cognitive theory and suggests the importance of social cognitive theory in understanding an individual's changeable nature of knowledge.

Although the shape of the behavioral alignment trajectory was different than predicted, the trajectory for behavioral alignment is straightforward. Instead of a slow ramp up that increases over time, the data showed a fast increase in behavior change that

increased at a decreasing rate over time. Interestingly, the behavioral alignment trajectory saw the largest increase between Time 2 and Time 3, which was one full period before the large increase in the trajectory for line of sight actions. These results may suggest that employees, although they were behaving correctly, actually did not understand how the behavior affected the new organizational objectives. However, these results may instead suggest that employees did not spend time making connections between what they learned in the intervention and how to apply it to the job. Understanding what causes this failure to make connections between the two pieces of knowledge could be important and interesting for understanding alignment.

Lastly, the dissertation also examined whether a change in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions actually does influence the behavioral alignment trajectory. These hypotheses begin to assess a dynamic form of alignment by investigating whether a change in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions can be used to predict behavioral alignment. To investigate these hypotheses, I used a newly developing methodology to model the growth in each of the variables over time and determine whether the behavior change can be predicted by the growth of line of sight objectives and line of sight actions. The results indicated that a change in line of sight objectives and a change in line of sight actions are important in predicting the trajectory for behavioral alignment. Although these results are exciting, the variance explained indicate there is clearly much more to learn about what may cause behavioral change. The change in line of sight objectives and line of sight actions explained only 8% of the variance in a change in behavioral alignment.

Further examination of the results in Table 9 provide some insight into the low variance explained in the change in behavioral alignment. Whereas some form of knowledge may be necessary to effectively align employees with a change initiative, knowledge itself seems insufficient. As can be seen in Table 9, the constructs chosen based on social cognitive theory were ineffective in moderating the process model hypotheses. In contrast, the theory provided excellent predictions for the knowledge trajectory hypotheses. Interestingly, these results suggest that social cognitive theory does a great job of predicting how knowledge changes over time; however, the theory is poor at predicting how the knowledge may lead to behavioral change. This is important because, at least to some basic extent, knowledge is an important condition for planned behavior, however, the results of this study suggest that knowledge predicted only a small amount of variance in the change in behavioral alignment. Developing an understanding of how behavior aligns after knowledge is acquired will be important in understanding factors of motivating employee alignment.

5.3 Theoretical Implications

This research contributes to the literature in several ways. First, through the development of the model and the examination of the hypotheses, this dissertation examines and advances a topic for one of the most fundamental aspects of organizational change, employee alignment. Given both the theoretical and practical relevance of understanding the alignment process, the model developed in this dissertation can provide a good starting point to examine employee alignment. More specifically, this research developed and examined one process through which a change in line of sight

objectives and line of sight actions influences behavioral alignment to a new change initiative. This issue is particularly salient because it is often noted that one reason for the high failure rates in organizational change (Pasmore, 2011) endeavors may be attributed to a failure to align employees (Higgs & Rowland, 2011; Miller, 2000). This research helps develop more comprehensive theory for understanding alignment and provides a good starting point from which to further understand what may cause employee alignment with an initiative.

Second, this research adds to the underdeveloped area of individual changeability (c.f. Woodman & Dewett, 2004). Historically, scholars in the organizational sciences have focused on different ways that organizations could be structured to motivate individuals (e.g., Hackman & Lawler, 1971). However, as times and methods have changed, more recent research has focused on individual factors of motivation, such as personality (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991). The idea has been that the individuals, through their own agency, can change their environment (Schneider, 1987), and, as a result, much of the focus has been on more stable characteristics, as opposed to changeable characteristics. However, in order to understand how employees change to meet ever-changing organizational goals, it will be important to examine the changeability of individual characteristics (Helervik et al., 1992; Woodman & Dewett, 2004). This dissertation contributes to understanding changeability through an examination of how a change intervention changed a more malleable attribute, knowledge (e.g., Lubinski, 2000; Markman & Gentner, 2001; Woodman & Dewett, 2004) and interesting results were found. Through an understanding of how knowledge

about the objective and how to meet the objective changes, this study was able to develop a preliminary understanding for how to potentially change behavior in organizations. This is a particularly salient issue because one of the most fundamental aspects of organizing individuals to meet an objective requires changing individuals. The process examined in this research introduced some very interesting theory on individual changeability and introduced several areas where future research could further develop this topic.

Third, this study aimed to extend knowledge of change interventions. Much of the literature on organizational change interventions has examined what the change looks like from an organizational perspective (Oreg et al., 2013). Although the work has been valuable, there is little understanding of how employees receive change (Oreg et al., 2013). Following the process model for change and development interventions developed by Porras and Robertson (1992), I suggested that organizational change occurs through individual behavior. In contrast to the popular model, I examined a process through which individual employees respond to the intervention. More specifically, I focus on how individual knowledge changes in response to a change initiative. The results also supported an interesting examination of how employees receive change and ways the organization can positively influence the individual change.

5.4 Practical Implications

There are several meaningful takeaways that are useful for managers. First, employee alignment to a change initiative can occur through a change in knowledge about the objective of the initiative and how to affect the objective. When adjustments

are needed to accomplish a goal, sometimes just teaching employees the reason for the change can produce some alignment with the initiative (Hatch & Dyer, 2004). The results here showed that even small increases in knowledge about the objective were important for predicting behavioral alignment.

Second, promoting employee locus of control, development of LMX, valence to outcomes, learning goals, and self-efficacy can greatly improve the amount of knowledge and the speed in which an employee acquires knowledge about a new change initiative. The results suggest that although the slope improved over time, the initial gain in knowledge was significantly greater for individuals with higher levels of the above variables than employees with lower levels of the variables. Further, employees with higher levels of the core facets of social cognitive theory also acquired more knowledge over time than employees with lower levels. Interestingly, a supplemental analysis reveals that only self-efficacy was important in predicting a change in behavioral alignment trajectory (.95, $p < .05$), suggesting that employer development of self-efficacy can pay significant dividends over time.

Third, understanding what employees know prior to an intervention could be deceiving on how much they will learn over time. As the results indicated, generally speaking, individuals that had more knowledge of an intervention prior to the intervention learned less through the intervention, which maintained over time. Although the reason for this is still not known, it indicates the importance for managers to pay special attention to how employees grow and learn over the time following an intervention.

5.5 Limitations and Future Research

The purpose of this section is to discuss the limitations of the dissertation and identify some additional areas for future research. One of the greatest challenges in developing theory for organizational change interventions stems from the fact that there are so many different types of interventions aimed at so many different types of outcomes with so many different purposes, which can limit the generalizability of any study (e.g., Golembiewski, 1979; Kahn, 1974; Porras & Robertson, 1987; Roberstson et al., 1993a, 1993b; Sashkin & Burke, 1987). Not to be mistaken, this limitation is important in this study. For example, this study proposed a specific trajectory for each of the focal variables and this trajectory could be different for any given intervention. Although the specifics and complexities of any change initiative may be different across change endeavors, I argued in this dissertation that a basic premise for an intervention is to communicate information in the hopes to achieve some type of alignment with the objective. This study provides evidence to support that idea, which I would argue is more generalizable across change initiatives.

Another limitation of this research is a failure to identify causality. As the lack of internal validity in research on change interventions has drawn considerable attention recently (Barends, Janssen, ten Have, ten Have, 2014a; 2014b; Beer, 2014; Schwarz & Stensaker, 2014; Woodman, 2014), this research did not contribute significantly to that line of inquiry. However, it was also not an aim of this research to contribute to that line of inquiry. It may be tempting to assert that the change in line of sight objectives that occurs from immediately before to immediately after the intervention was caused by the

intervention, those claims are not asserted by this study. Although the design of this study had many advantages, including the ability to assess whether the change in predictors may have influenced a change in the outcome, it also was not developed to improve internal validity and assess causality from the intervention. However, this study provides a valuable insight into a rarely studied aspect of individuals (i.e., changeability) and uses a new methodology that is rarely used in the field. Also, Barends and colleagues (2014a, 2014b), in their critique of change intervention research, did suggest the importance of using new methodologies to understanding change interventions in addition to assessing causality of the intervention. This study does accomplish the latter.

However, it is important to note that a nonequivalent dependent variable (Coryn & Hobson, 2011) was included to reduce threats to internal validity, similar to Chiaburu, Sawyer, Smith, Brown and Harris (2014). Given that an employee's self-concept clarity has not been theoretically linked to the variables in this study and is not thought to change in the short-term after an intervention (e.g., Campbell et al., 1996), I would expect no significant effects on the nonequivalent dependent variable, while knowledge and behavior change. If the effect were the results of another event affecting employee knowledge and behavior, then self-concept clarity could also change as well (Campbell et al., 1996). The results suggested that self-concept clarity did not change during the study and was not significantly predictive of any change in behavior or change in line of sight objectives or line of sight actions, which reduced some threat to the internal validity of the dissertation.

There are also some limitations to assessing alignment. First, although this dissertation examined employee alignment at several points in time and found a change in behavior consistent with the new strategy and theory, it is not clear whether alignment can be sustained months of years after the alignment process. As has been echoed several times in the past (Cummings & Worley, 2008; Lawler, Nadler, & Mirvis, 1983; Woodman, Bingham & Yuan, 2008), future research should examine whether a "specific change target variable returns to its original state after the assessment occurs" (Woodman et al., 2008, p. 8). Research in this line of inquiry would be valuable for future research on the topic. Another limitation is that this dissertation did not assess whether individual alignment was related to organizational alignment with the new change initiative. As research on the alignment process is important from a micro level, understanding whether behavioral alignment affected the overall change initiative would have also been valuable. Future research examining how individual level change affects macro level change will be important in understanding alignment from a meso perspective (House, Rousseau & Thomas-Hunt, 1995).

There is also a limitation pertaining to the line of sight variables. Through the dissertation I developed hypotheses based on whether an employee's line of sight to a change objective can influence behaviors, however, the variable was measured from the individual's perspective. Therefore, this study makes an inherent assumption that there is a relationship between whether the individual thinks they know the change objectives and whether they actually know the objective. However, this problem is not uncommon in organizational research as many constructs suffer from the same inherent limitation,

constructs such as behavioral integrity (Simons, 2002), organizational citizenship behaviors and task performance behaviors (Bommer, Miles & Grover), just to name a few. Also, threats due to this limitation were reduced in this study because a person's belief in their self (i.e., self-efficacy) is considered a contributing factor to an inflated belief in what they know or motivation to act and performance (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006), and self-efficacy was considered in several of the models, providing a control of sorts. However, this limitation also opens the door for future research to consider supervisor ratings of line of sight or even open-ended surveys or interviews to assess whether the employees actually do have line of sight to the objective or the actions. Future research would greatly benefit from identifying the importance of self- ratings of line of sight.

Based on these results, there are plenty of areas for future research. Given the limited number of quantitative studies that have examined a process of alignment over time, future research would benefit substantially with more systematic research on the topic. For example, it would be interesting to note other important factors that might cause a change in behavior or further examine potential processes that may affect a change in behavior. Simply adding variables to the general model of this study, would further the science of alignment during change interventions.

In addition to the future research areas discussed up to this point, another area for future research would be to examine the process of how knowledge changes in more detail. Interestingly, line of sight actions developed at a later point in time than behavior change. It would be interesting to understand whether this change occurred because

employees rationalized their behavior change to match the new initiative after they were coerced into the behaviors. Or, whether there may have been a disparity between what employees learn theoretically in an intervention and the actual implementation of the intervention when they return to their behavioral anchors and regular work roles. Examining the importance of anchoring and information seeking may be a key to understanding employee alignment with a change initiative.

One last area of future research that bears mention is the area of individual differences. Despite that the organizational change literature mostly developed from the standpoint of organization level concerns (Judge et al., 1999; Oreg et al., 2013), considerable research from the standpoint of the individual has been found to be important for change endeavors (e.g., Judge et al., 1999). This is because, even though individual alignment requires a degree of changing knowledge and behaviors, several stable attributes are important in predicting how people will change. More specifically, future research examining how individual differences, such as general mental ability, personality, and values, can effect employee alignment would be warranted.

5.6 Conclusion

Through my dissertation I attempted to develop theory on how employees align with a change initiative. The proposed model argued that, generally speaking, change interventions are used to communicate information to employees about a change endeavor and actions that can be taken to affect a change endeavor. The model also suggested that following the introduction of a change initiative that knowledge would align with the initiative. Ultimately, I suggested that this would lead to a behavioral

change over time. More specifically, I modeled whether a change in line of sight objectives and a change in line of sight actions would actually affect the rate in which employees learned.

Although the specific hypotheses did not all receive full support, the general premise was supported. The results of the dissertation not only supported the idea that behavioral alignment can occur through a change in knowledge, it also supports the importance of social cognitive theory in predicting how knowledge changes over time. In this regard, especially when considering the uniqueness of every change intervention, it seems sensible to conclude that the theory generated in this study, for both the trajectory of knowledge acquisition and behavioral alignment, warrants further attention. Also, of note, it is important that the changeability of knowledge was important in predicting behavior change and warrants further investigation into the importance of changeable attributes, particularly on changing behavior.

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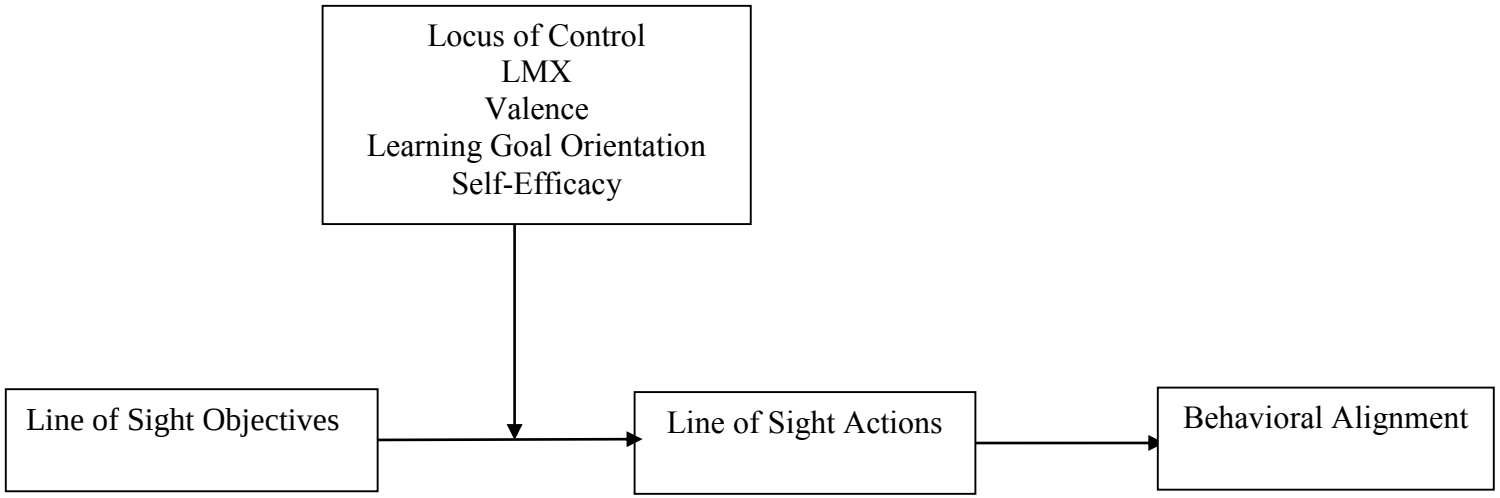
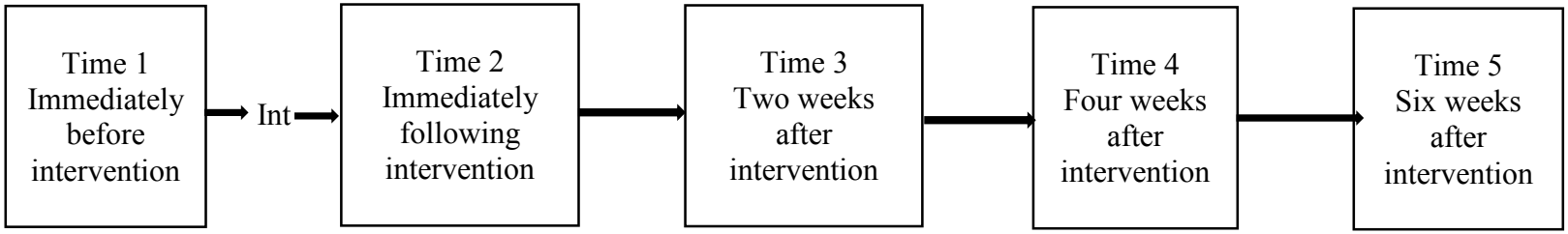
APPENDIX A

Figure 1. A Line of Sight Process Model



Note: Line of sight objectives refers to the employees' knowledge of the change objective;
Line of sight actions refers to the employees' knowledge of the behaviors that can accomplish the new objectives;
Behavioral alignment refers to the behaviors that are consistent with the new objectives.

Figure 2 Survey Times



Note: Int = Intervention

Figure 3 Line of Sight Objectives Sample and Estimated Trajectories

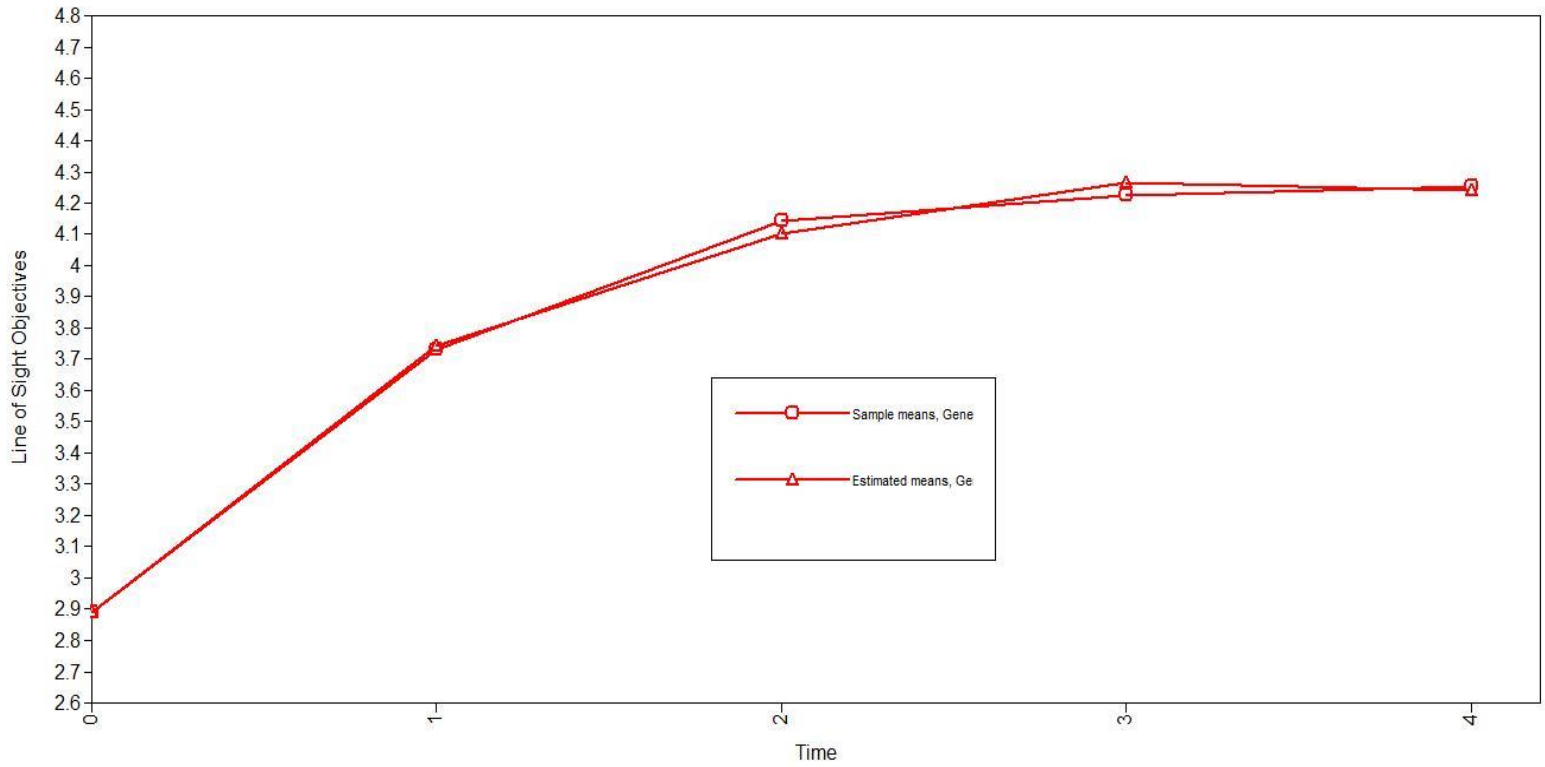


Figure 4 Line of Sight Actions Sample Estimate and Actual Trajectories

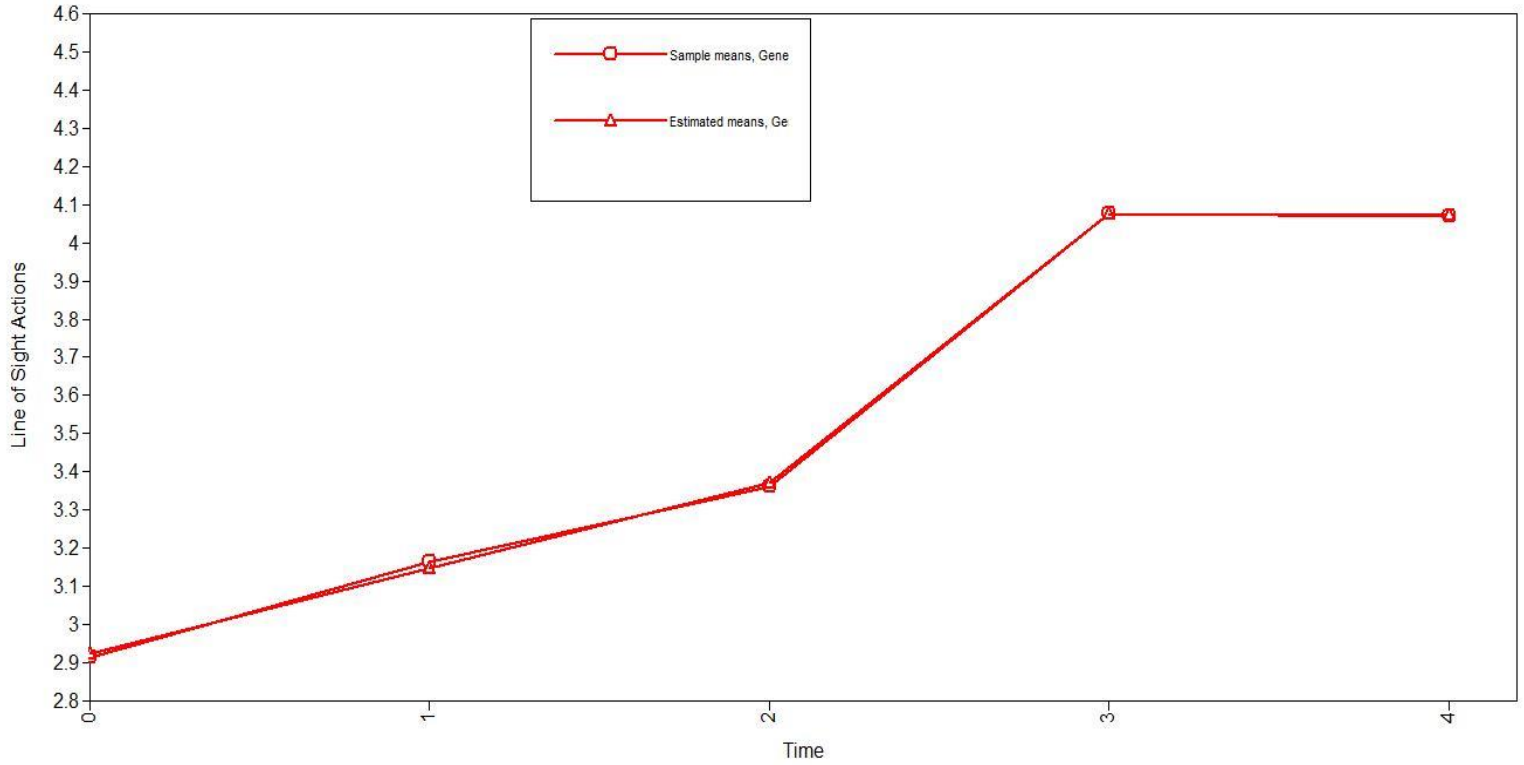


Figure 5 Line of Sight Objectives Trajectory at Different Levels of Locus of Control

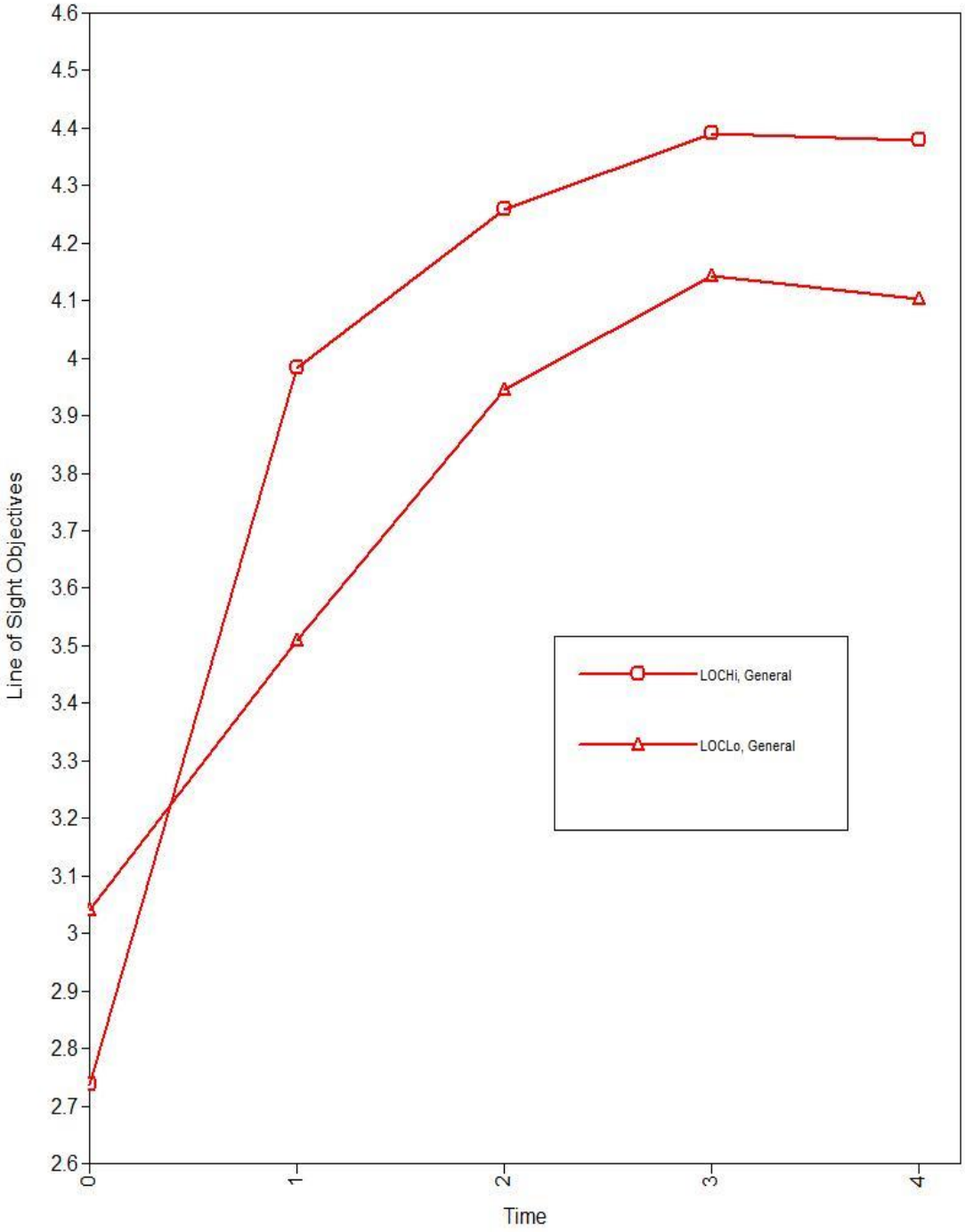


Figure 6 Line of Sight Actions Trajectory at Different Levels of Locus of Control

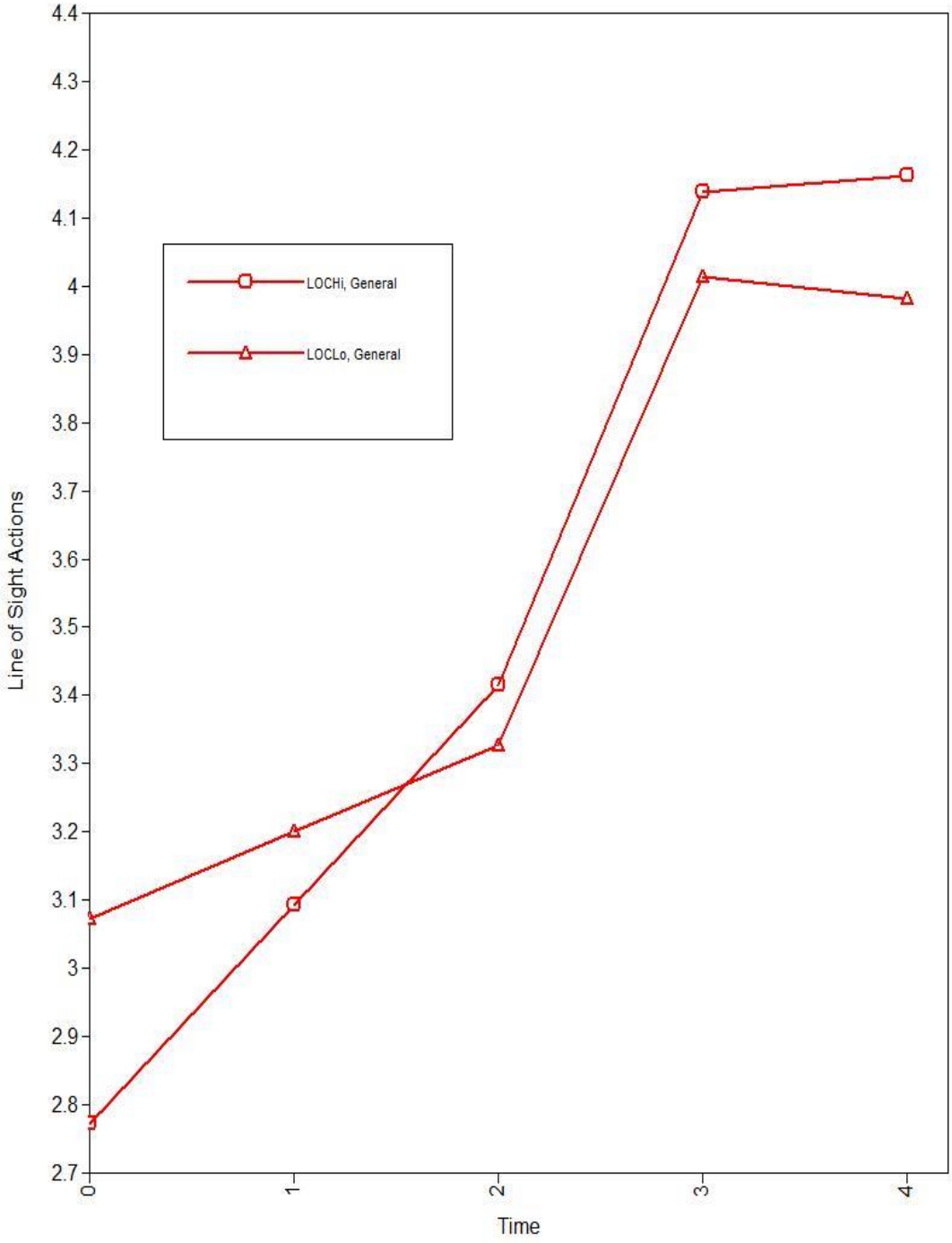


Figure 7 Line of Sight Objectives Trajectory at Different Levels of Leader-Member Exchange

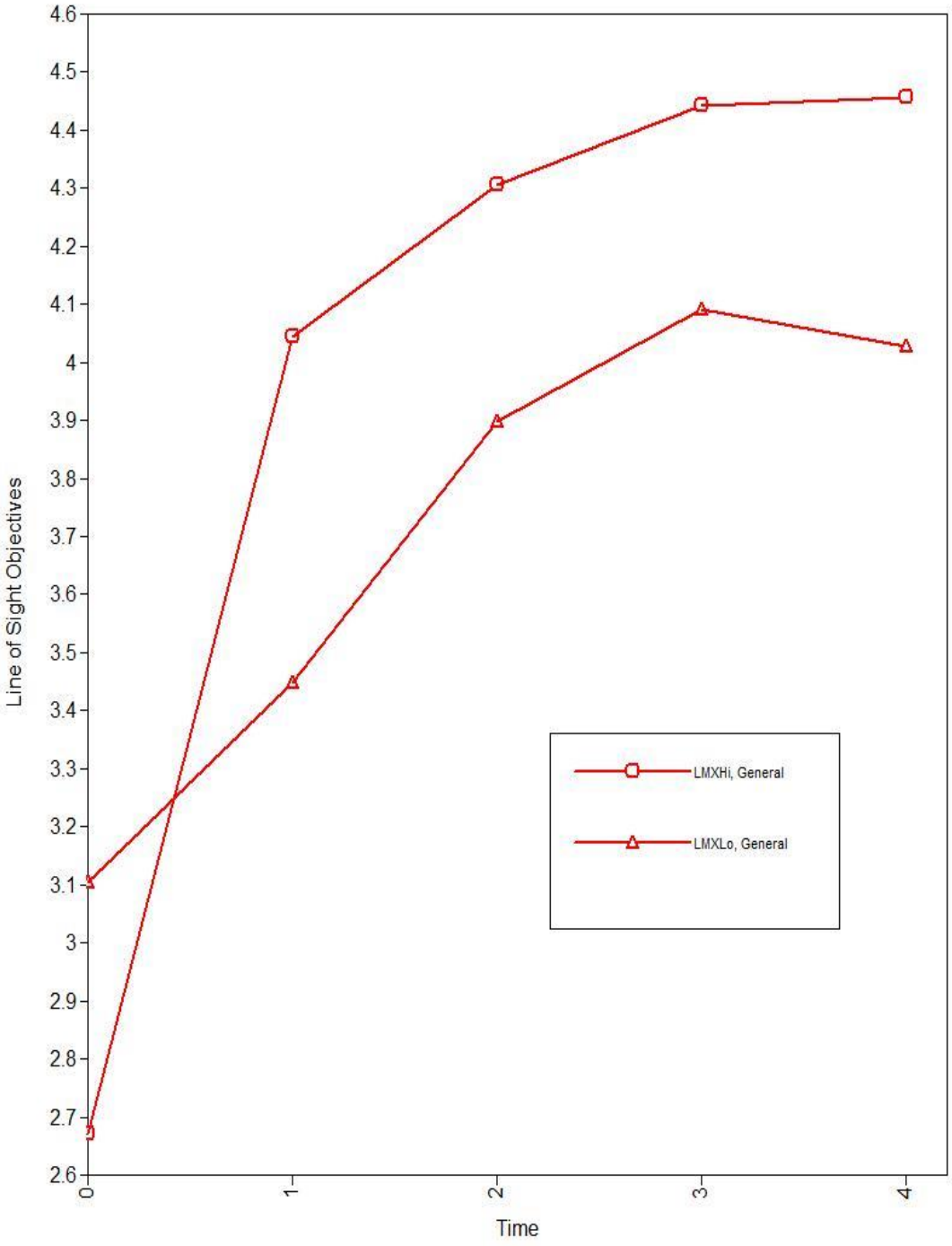


Figure 8 Line of Sight Actions Trajectory at Different Levels of Leader-Member Exchange

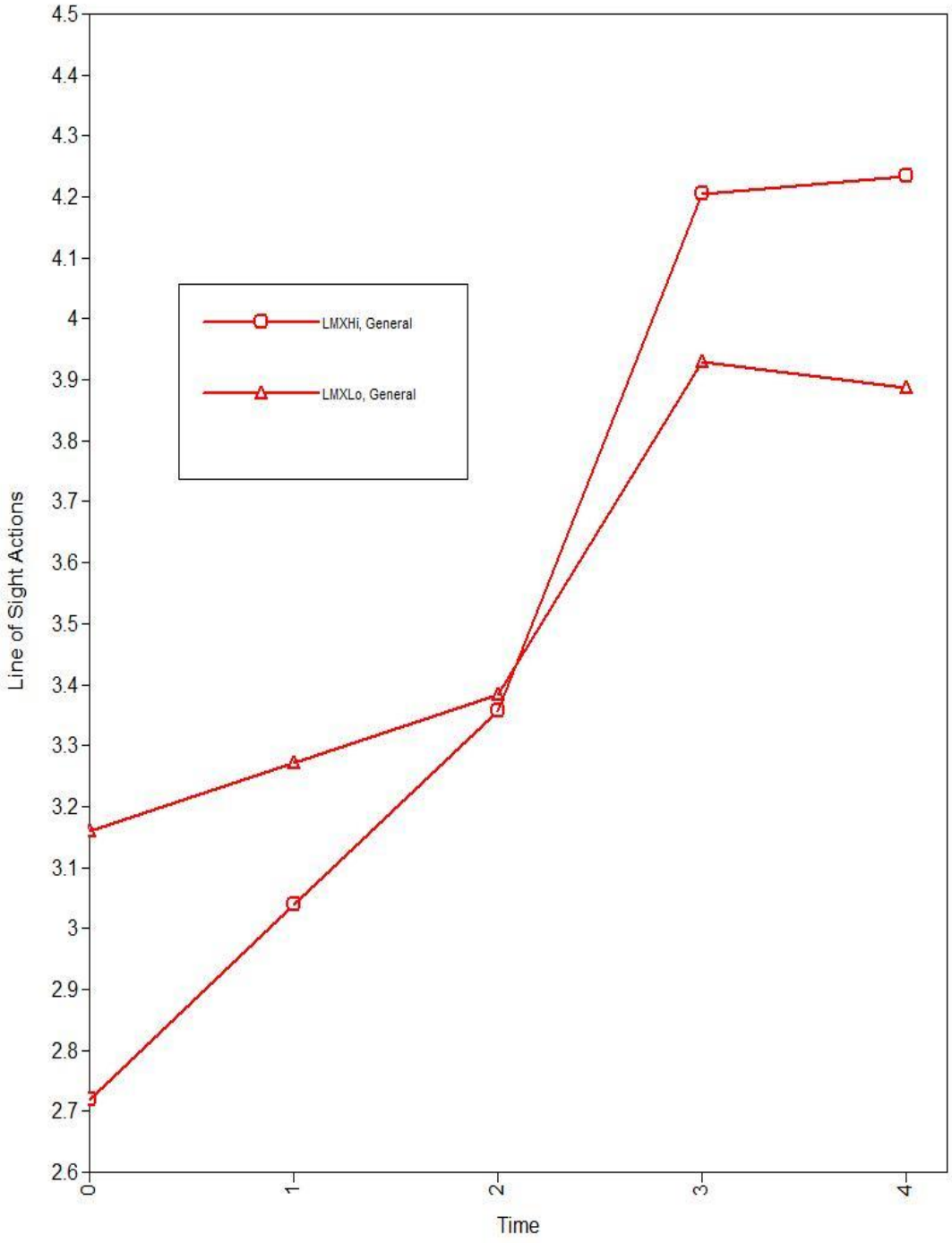


Figure 9 Line of Sight Objectives Trajectory at Different Levels of Valence

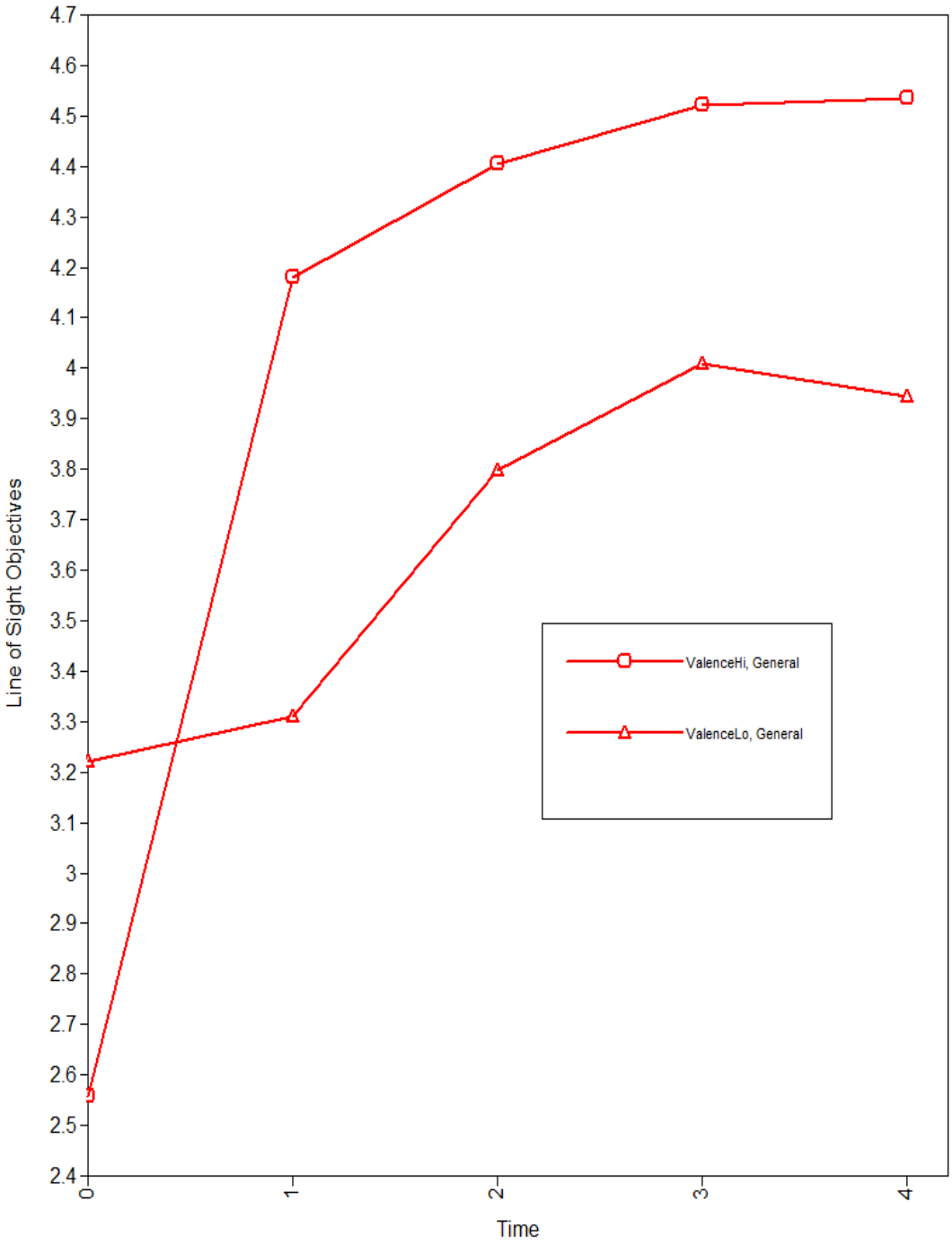


Figure 10 Line of Sight Actions Trajectory at Different Levels of Valence

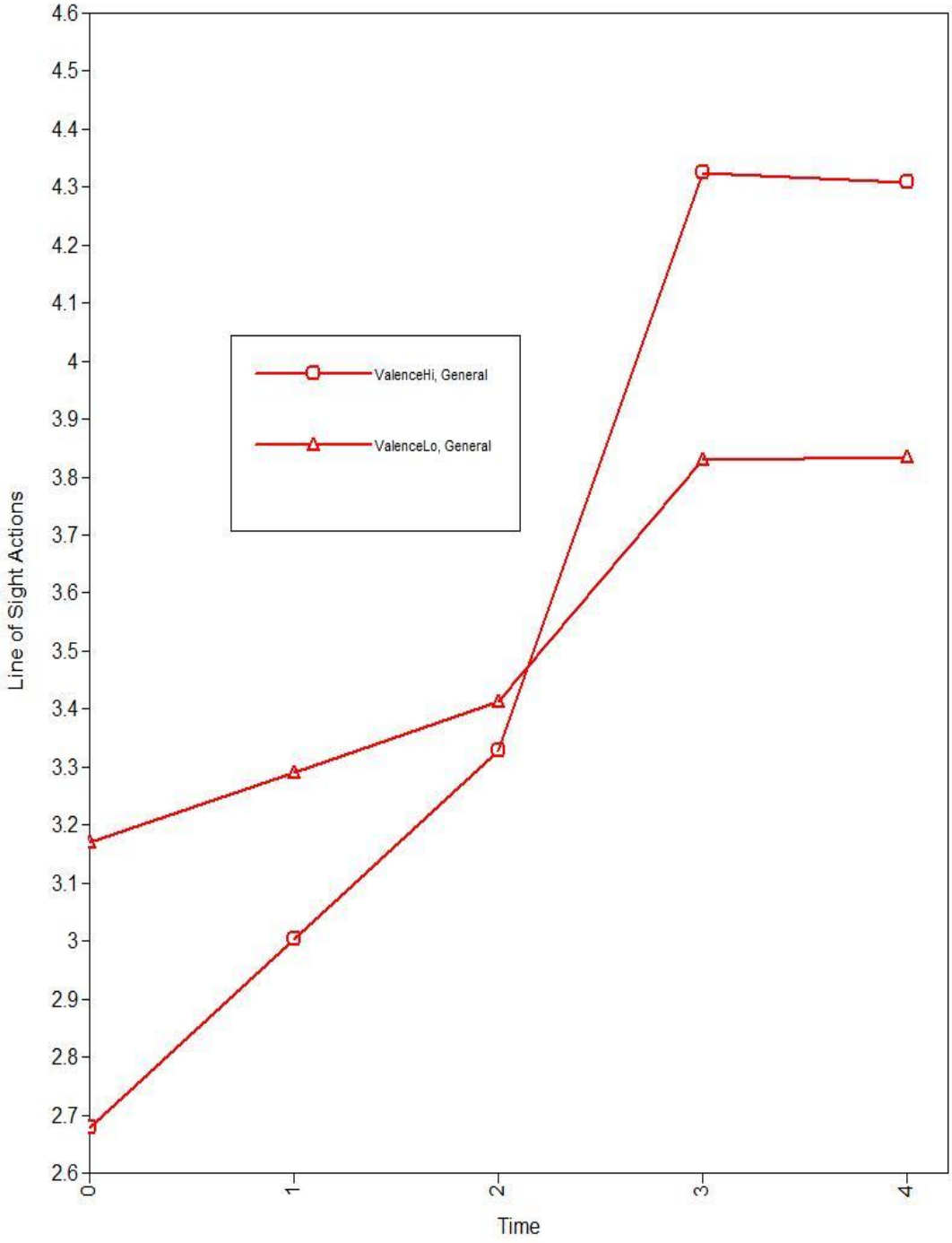


Figure 11 Line of Sight Objectives Trajectory at Different Levels of LGO

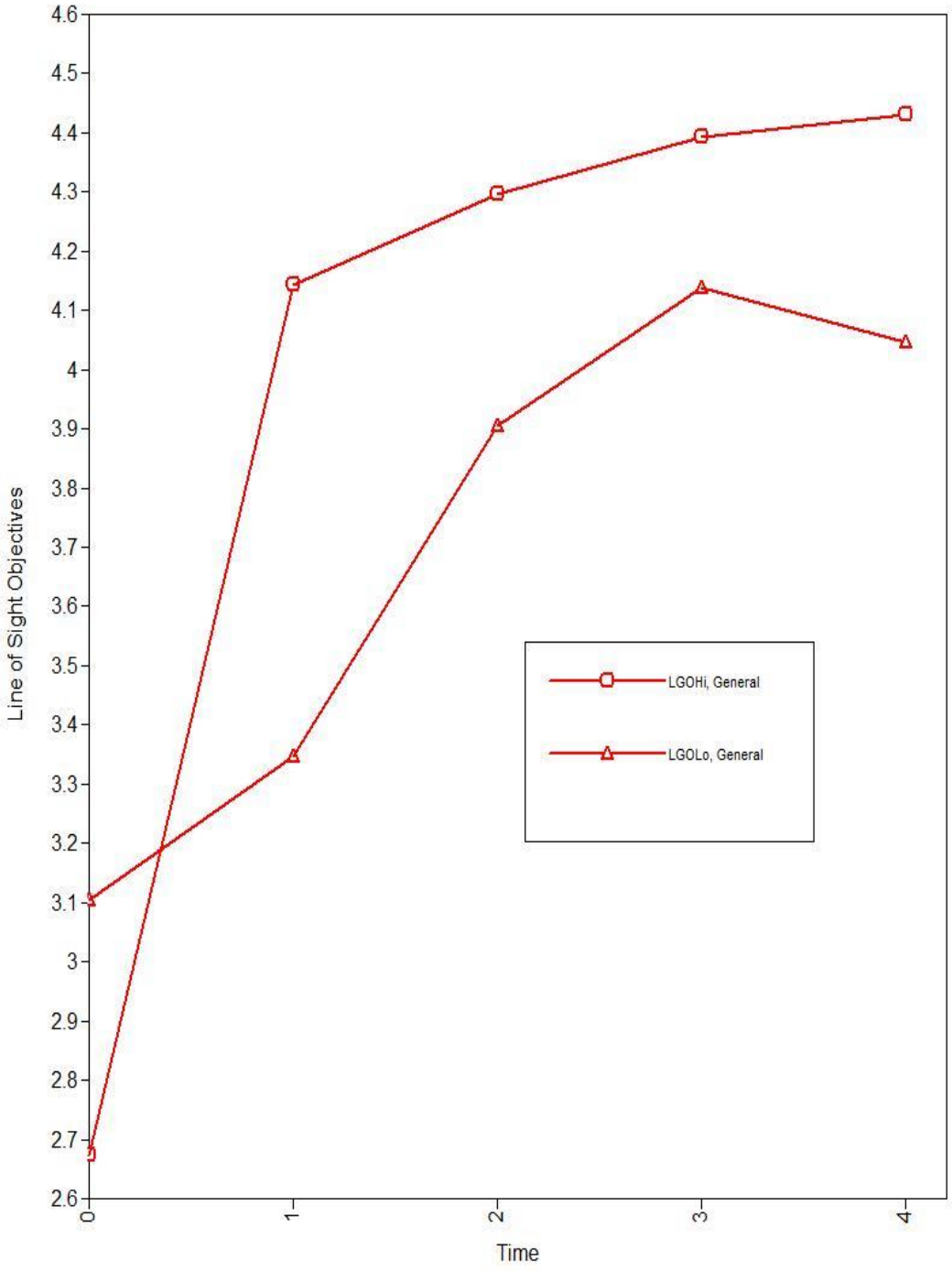


Figure 12 Line of Sight Actions Trajectory at Different Levels of LGO

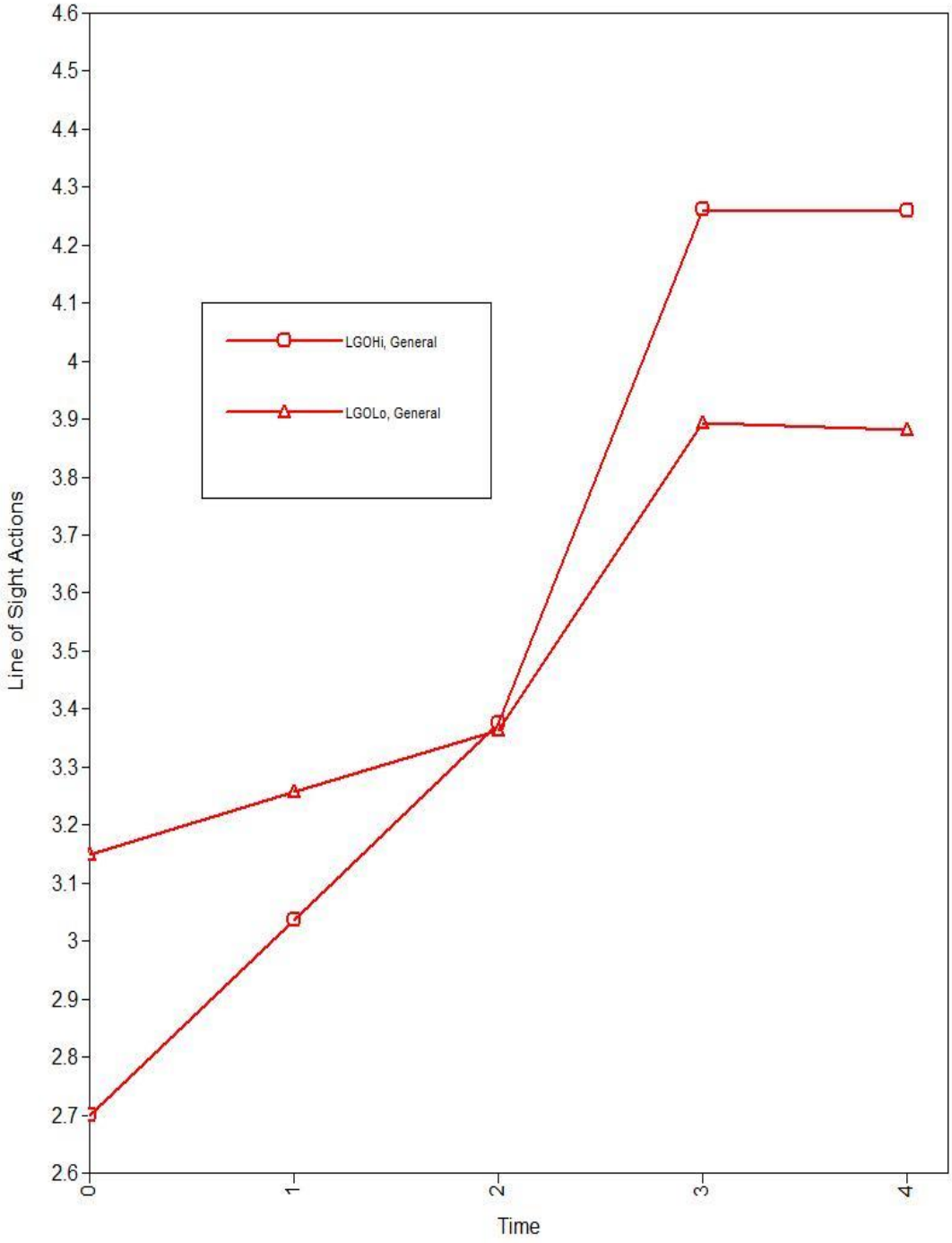


Figure 13 Line of Sight Objectives Trajectory at Different Levels of General Self-Efficacy

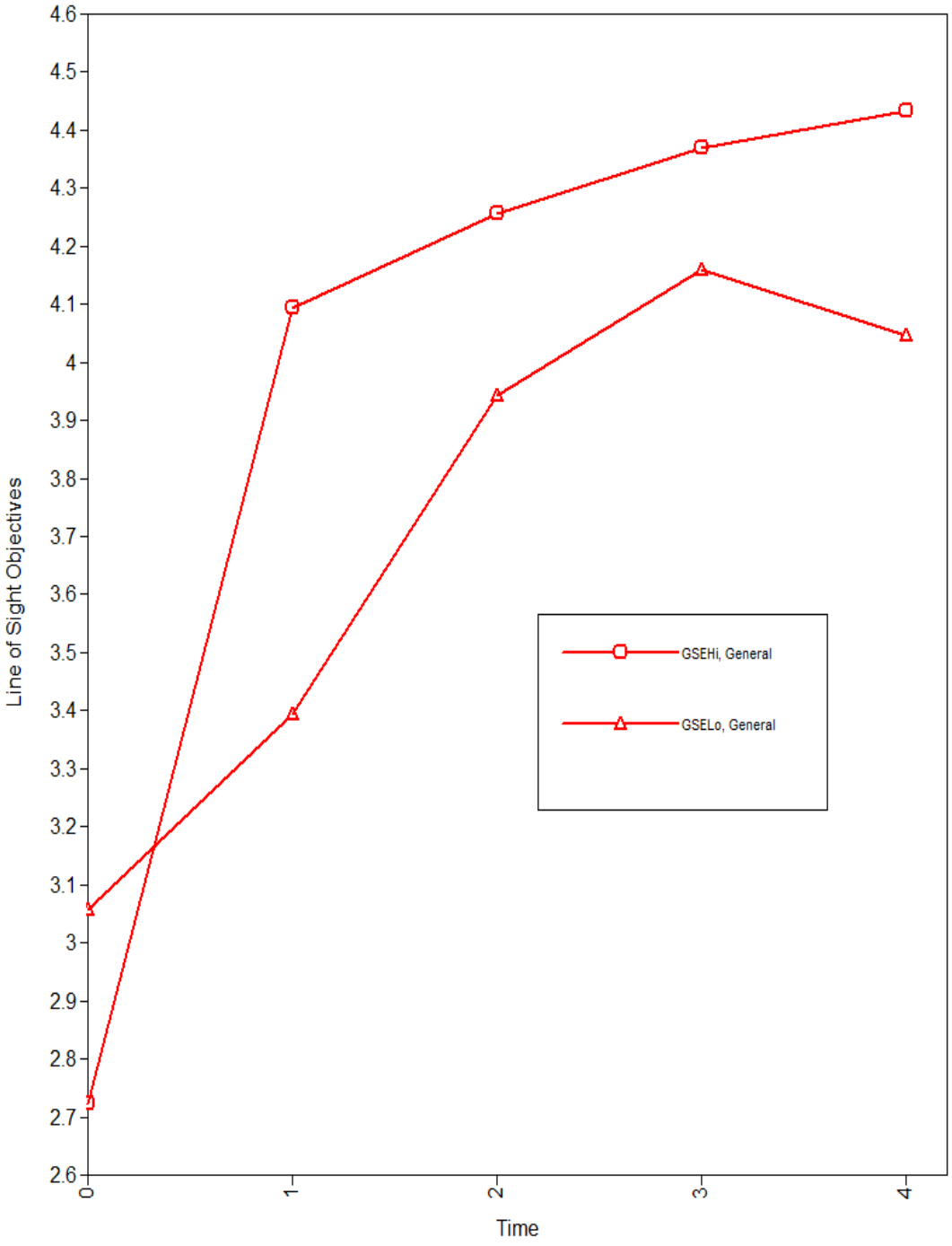
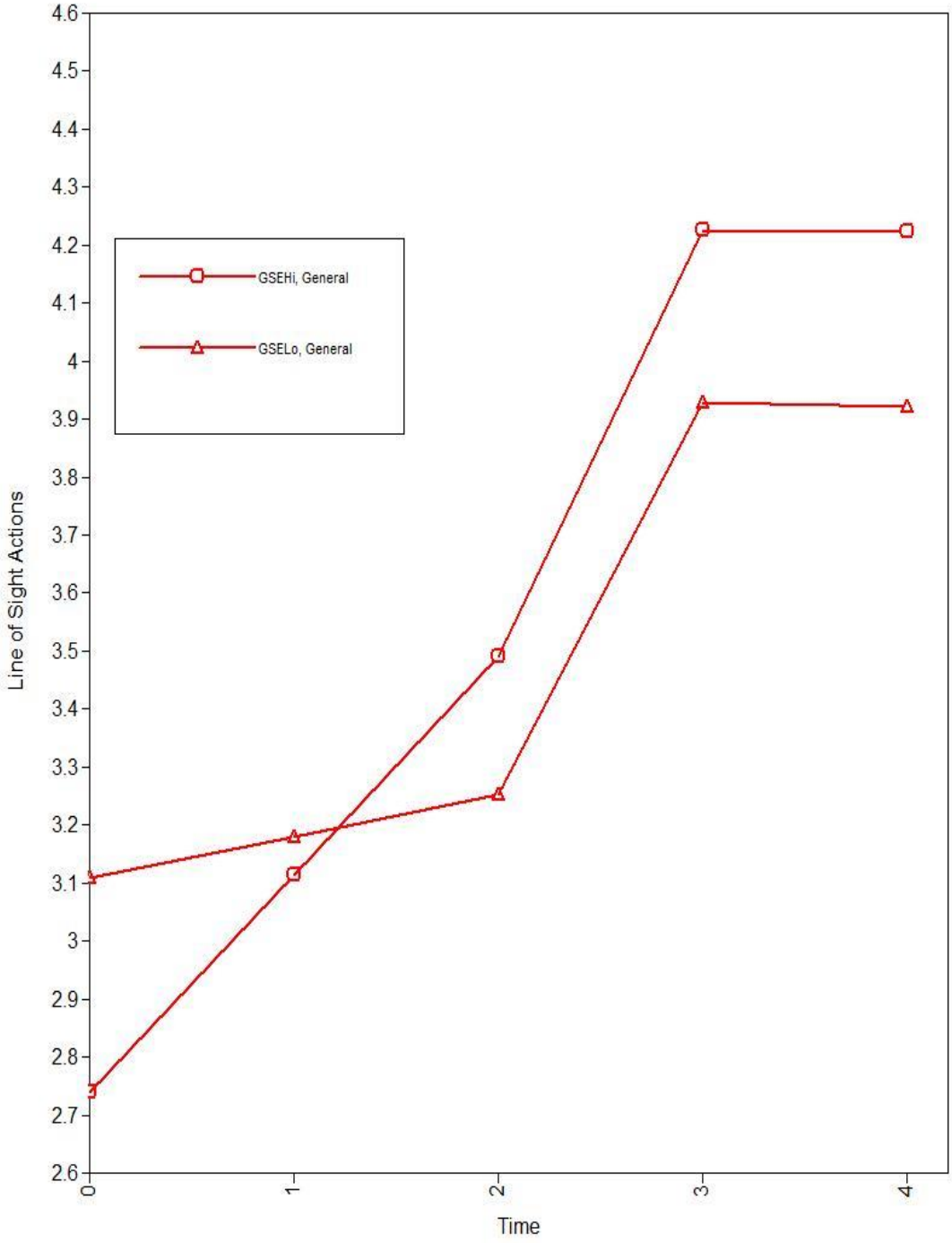


Figure 14 Line of Sight Actions Trajectory at Different Levels of General Self-Efficacy



APPENDIX B

Table 1 Process Model Hypotheses

	IV	DV	Moderator
H1	Line of Sight Objectives	Behavioral Alignment	
H2	Line of Sight Objectives	Line of Sight Actions	
	Line of Sight Actions	Behavioral Alignment	
H7	Line of Sight Objectives	Line of Sight Actions	High locus of control accentuates
H10	Line of Sight Objectives	Line of Sight Actions	High LMX accentuates
H13	Line of Sight Objectives	Line of Sight Actions	High valence accentuates
H16	Line of Sight Objectives	Line of Sight Actions	High learning goal orientation accentuates
H19	Line of Sight Objectives	Line of Sight Actions	High self-efficacy accentuates

Note: IV-DV relationship is expected to be positive

Table 2 Line of Sight Objectives Trajectory Hypotheses

	Main variable	Moderator	T_1 □ T_2	T_2 □ T_5
H3	Line of sight objectives		Low to high (increases)	Levels off
H5	Line of sight objectives	High locus of control	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low locus of control	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases slightly (diminishes)
H8	Line of sight objectives	High LMX	No change	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low LMX	No change	No change
H11	Line of sight objectives	High valence	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low valence	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases slightly (diminishes)
H14	Line of sight objectives	High learning orientation	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low learning orientation	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases significantly (diminishes)
H17	Line of sight objectives	High self-efficacy	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low self-efficacy	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases slightly (diminishes)

Table 3 Line of Sight Actions Trajectory Hypotheses

	Main variable	Moderator	T_1 □ T_2	T_2 → T_5
H3	Line of sight actions		Low to high (increases)	Slight decrease
H5	Line of sight actions	High locus of control	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low locus of control	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases slightly (diminishes)
H8	Line of sight actions	High LMX	No change	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low LMX	No change	Decreases (diminishes)
H11	Line of sight actions	High valence	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low valence	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases slightly (diminishes)
H14	Line of sight actions	High learning orientation	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low learning orientation	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases slightly (diminishes)
H17	Line of sight actions	High self-efficacy	Higher peak (accentuates)	Increases slightly (accentuates)
		Low self-efficacy	Lower peak (diminishes)	Decreases slightly (diminishes)

Table 4 Behavioral Alignment Trajectory Hypotheses

	Main variable	Moderator	$T_1 \rightarrow T_5$
H20	Behavioral Alignment		Slow increase
H21	Behavioral Alignment	High change in line of sight objectives	Increases at a faster rate (accentuates)
		Low change in line of sight objectives	Increases at a slower rate (diminishes)
H22	Behavioral Alignment	High change in line of sight action	Increases at a faster rate (accentuates)
		Low change in line of sight actions	Increases at a slower rate (diminishes)

Table 5 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Locus of Control	3.72	0.38	(0.58)														
2. Leader-Member Exchange	3.66	0.51	0.45*	(0.83)													
3. Valence	3.83	0.48	0.31*	.43*	(0.85)												
4. Learning Goal Orientation	3.95	0.55	0.36*	.36*	.50*	(0.85)											
5. General Self-Efficacy	3.79	0.45	0.29*	.40*	.45*	.62*	(0.87)										
6. Line of Sight Objectives T1	2.89	0.66	-.24*	-.33*	-.51*	-.33*	-.26*	(0.72)									
7. Line of Sight Actions T1	2.91	0.64	-.27*	-.38*	-.39*	-.37*	-.33*	.25*	(0.74)								
8. Self-Concept Clarity T1	2.77	0.55	-.08	-.09	.01	.05	-.02	.19*	.10	(.72)							
9. Line of Sight Objectives T2	3.73	0.76	.16*	.38*	-.44*	.53*	.47*	-.33*	-.44*	.08	-(.70)						
10. Line of Sight Actions T2	3.12	0.60	-.02	-.19*	.10	-.14^	.04	.31*	.10	.12	-.20*	(.75)					
11. Self-Concept Clarity T2	2.62	0.59	-.16*	-.19*	.18*	-.03	-.08	.34*	.18*	.69*	-.04	.10	(.76)				
12. Line of Sight Objectives T3	4.14	0.61	.22*	.39*	-.35*	.30*	.25*	-.44*	-.35*	-.14*	.54*	-.30*	-.24*	(.75)			
13. Line of Sight Actions T3	3.37	0.62	-.04	-.03	-.09	-.02	.16*	-.16*	-.09	-.01	.05	.23*	.01	-.14^	(.79)		
14. Self-Concept Clarity T3	2.62	0.61	-.12	-.18*	.12	.01	-.04	.31*	.12	.63*	-.02	.16*	.86*	-.24*	-.04	(.80)	
15. Line of Sight Objectives T4	4.22	0.68	.20*	.20*	-.16*	.20*	.16*	-.38*	-.16*	-.12	.38*	-.28*	-.22*	.48*	.03	-.20*	(.82)
16. Line of Sight Actions T4	4.08	0.60	.10	.24*	-.43*	.30*	.24*	-.25*	-.43*	.02	.38*	.19*	-.07	.35*	.19*	-.12	.50*
17. Self-Concept Clarity T4	2.60	0.65	-.13^	-.20*	15*	-.05	-.08	.34*	.15*	.61*	-.07	.12	.83*	-.22*	-.05	.88*	-.26*
18. Line of Sight Objectives T5	4.25	0.65	.20*	.34*	-.23*	.28*	.29*	-.38*	-.23*	-.16*	.38*	-.30*	-.26*	.64*	-.03	-.29*	.67*
19. Line of Sight Actions T5	4.07	0.68	.13	.26*	-.26*	.27*	.21*	-.26*	-.26*	.04	.31*	-.18*	-.06	.37*	.10	-.13	.50*
20. Self-Concept Clarity T5	2.56	0.68	-.13	-.18*	.13^	.00	-.02	.32*	.13*	.61*	-.05	.07	.79*	-.24*	.00	.83*	-.29*
21. Behavioral Alignment T2	2.47	0.65	-.14^	-.23*	.22*	-.27*	-.31*	.16*	.22*	.08	-.40*	.13^	.21*	-.28*	.02	.19*	-.19*
22. Behavioral Alignment T3	3.68	0.64	.13^	.25*	-.23*	.28*	.35*	-.20*	-.22*	-.11	.40*	-.12	-.19*	.25*	.03	-.16*	.16*
23. Behavioral Alignment T4	3.80	0.66	.14^	.22*	-.17*	.26*	.32*	-.13^	-.17*	-.05	.38*	-.05	-.14^	.26*	-.02	-.10	.17*
24. Behavioral Alignment T5	3.92	0.64	.16*	.21*	-.13^	.24*	.33*	-.14^	-.13^	-.04	.33*	-.03	-.07	.20*	-.01	-.04	.11

Note. n = 176. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * p < .05, ^ p < .10

Table 5 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
16. Line of Sight Actions T4	4.08	0.60	(.73)								
17. Self-Concept Clarity T4	2.60	0.65	-.13	(.81)							
18. Line of Sight Objectives T5	4.25	0.65	.55	-.31*	(.84)						
19. Line of Sight Actions T5	4.07	0.68	.62	-.14^	.65*	(.75)					
20. Self-Concept Clarity T5	2.56	0.68	-.09	.88*	-.37*	-.20*	(.82)				
21. Behavioral Alignment T2	2.47	0.65	-.20	.25*	-.28*	-.18*	.20*	(.83)			
22. Behavioral Alignment T3	3.68	0.64	.25	-.25*	.23*	.18*	-.16*	-.86*	(.84)		
23. Behavioral Alignment T4	3.80	0.66	.30	-.17*	.23*	.22*	-.12^	-.72*	.80*	(.87)	
24. Behavioral Alignment T5	3.92	0.64	.28	-.11	.19*	.20*	-.03	-.60*	.69*	.85*	(.87)

Note. n = 176. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ^ $p < .10$

Table 6 Standardized Path Coefficients for the Structural Equation Model

	Criterion											
Predictor	LOSA	BA	LOSA	BA	LOSA	BA	LOSA	BA	LOSA	BA	LOSA	BA
Line of Sight Objectives	.39*	.12	.61	.30	.16	.21	.30	.24	.05	.15*	.54	.13
Line of Sight Actions		.18*		.17*		.17*		.15*		1.03		.26
Moderators:												
Locus of Control			.21	.25								
LOC x LOSO			-.31	-.26								
Leader-Member Exchange					.01	.22						
LMX x LOSO					.28	-.19						
Valence							.25	.26				
Valence x LOSO							-.04	-.26				
Learning Goal Orienation									-.07	.97		
LGO x LOSO									.44	-1.41		
General Self-Efficacy											.29	.42
GSE x LOSO											-.26	-.26
R^2 for criterion	.15*	.06*	.16*	.08*	.18*	.08*	.19*	.07*	.18*	.11*	.18*	.14*

Note. n = 176. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * p < .05, ^ p < .10

Table 7 Unstandardized Path Coefficients and R^2 Value for Latent Growth Model

	Criterion										
	Line of Sight Objectives				Line of Sight Actions				Behavioral Alignment		
Predictor	INT	Piece	Slope	Quad	INT	Piece1	Piece2	Piece3	INT	Slope	Quad
Mean	2.89*	.86*	.45*	-.10*	2.92*	.22*	.71*	-.01	2.47*	1.77*	-.55*
Variance	.23*	.94*	.06	-.01*	.12*	.07*	.08*	-.24	.01	-1.52*	-.18*
Moderators:											
Locus of Control	-.40*	1.03*	-.27*	.06**	-.40*	.26*	.05	.08			
Leader-Member Exchange	-.43*	1.01*	-.25*	.07*	-.46*	.22*	.32*	.07			
Valence	-.69*	1.59*	-.36*	.09*	-.51*	.21*	.60*	-.02			
Learning Goal Orienation	-.39*	1.11*	-.49*	.12*	-.41*	.21*	.32*	.01			
General Self-Efficacy	-.37*	1.15*	-.58*	.16*	-.41*	.34*	.06	.01			

Note. n = 176. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ^ $p < .10$

Table 8 Unstandardized Path Coefficients and R^2 Value for Multi-Variate Latent Growth Model

	Criterion						
	Line of Sight Actions				Behavioral Alignment		
Predictor	INT	Piece1	Piece2	Piece3	INT	Slope	Quad
LOSO-I	-.57*				-.19*		
LOSO-S		-.39**	2.35*	.38		-.94*	.22*
LOSO-Q		-1.19*	5.62*	.02		-1.72*	.42**
LOSA-I					.01		
LOSA-P1						.37	-.09
LOSA-P2						.29*	-.07*
LOSA-P3					.51*	-.10*	

Note. n = 176. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ^ $p < .10$

Table 9 Summary of Results

Hyp #	Summary	Support (Y/N)
Process Model Hypotheses		
H1	Line of sight objectives → Line of sight actions	Yes
H2	Line of sight objectives →Line of sight actions → Behavioral alignment	Yes
H7	H1 moderated by locus of control	No
H10	H1 moderated by leader member exchange	No
H13	H1 moderated by valence	No
H16	H1 moderated by learning goal orientation	No
H19	H1 moderated by self-efficacy	No
Line of Sight Objectives Trajectory		
H3	Line of sight objectives trajectory	Partial
H5	H3 moderated by locus of control	Partial
H8	H3 moderated by leader member exchange	Partial
H11	H3 moderated by valence	Partial
H14	H3 moderated by learning goal orientation	Partial
H17	H3 moderated by self-efficacy	Partial
Line of Sight Actions Trajectory		
H4	Line of sight actions trajectory	Partial
H6	H4 moderated by locus of control	Partial
H9	H4 moderated by leader member exchange	Partial
H12	H4 moderated by valence	Partial
H15	H4 moderated by learning goal orientation	Partial
H18	H4 moderated by self-efficacy	Partial
Behavioral Alignment Trajectory		
H20	Behavioral alignment trajectory	No
H21	H20 moderated by line of sight objectives	Yes
H22	H20 moderated by line of sight actions	Yes

APPENDIX C

Spector, P. E. (1998). A control theory of the job stress process. *Theories of Organizational Stress*, 153-169.

Items from the Work Locus of Control Scale

1. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.
2. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.
3. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck. RC
4. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune. RC
5. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.
6. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs. RC
7. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it.
8. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck. RC

Graen, G. B., & Scandura, T. A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *9*(1), 175-208.

Items for Leader-member exchange

1. My employee always knows how satisfied I am with what he/she does,
2. I understand my employee's problems and needs well enough.
3. I recognize my employee's potential some but not enough.
4. I would personally use my power to help him solve my employee's work problem.
5. My employee can count on me to 'bail him/her out' at my expense when he/she really needs it.
6. My employee has enough confidence in me to defend and justify my decisions when I am not present to do so.
7. My working relationship with my employer is extremely effective.

Zaniboni, S., Fraccaroli, F., Truxillo, D. M., Bertolino, M., & Bauer, T. N. (2011). Training valence, instrumentality, and expectancy scale (T-VIES-it): Factor structure and nomological network in an Italian sample. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *23*(2), 133-151.

Items for Valence

1. Given the outcomes I expect from the change endeavor, I want to improve my technical/practical knowledge in my job.
2. I feel it is important to take part in this change endeavor in order to strengthen my skills
3. I think it is important to learn new things in order to accomplish my goals for work

Additional item

4. I can see value for my personal/professional development as a result of the change initiative.
5. The change endeavor is not very important to me. (RC)

Outcome specific items

6. It is important to me that the change endeavor develops my ability to interact with customers.
7. I personally value that the company has chosen to move in a more customer-centric direction
8. I expect a focus on customer experience will be beneficial to my personal goals within the organization.

VandeWalle, D. (1997). Development and validation of a work domain goal orientation instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *57*(6), 995-1015.

Items for Learning goal orientation

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment I can learn a lot from
2. I often look forward to opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasksat work where I'll learn new skills
4. For me, development of my work abilities is important enough to take risks
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods, 4*, 62-83

Items for General self-efficacy

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Gagnon, M. A., Jansen, K. J., & Michael, J. H. (2008). Employee alignment with strategic change: A study of strategy-supportive behavior among blue-collar employees. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 425-443.

Items for Line of Sight Objectives

1. The new initiative is about the customer experience.
2. Customers are not part of the new change initiative. (RC)
3. I understand why COMPANY X is moving toward improved customer experience
4. I understand why the company is moving toward improving the customer experience.
5. I do not understand how the customer experience is going to help the company. (RC)

Open-ended results for line of sight objectives

1. Based on the presentation, what are the new objectives?

Gagnon, M. A., Jansen, K. J., & Michael, J. H. (2008). Employee alignment with strategic change: A study of strategy-supportive behavior among blue-collar employees. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 425-443.

Items for Line of Sight Actions

1. Paying attention to customers as they walk in the door will help accomplish the organizations objective.
2. By stepping away from my work to help customers with their needs, I can work to meet the company's goals.
3. By improving order accuracy, I can help improve the company's goals.
4. I do not see how my actions need to change to meet the objectives. (RC)
5. My tasks at work will still be the same following the introduction of the new initiative. (RC)

Open-ended results for line of sight objectives

1. What are actions you can take to achieve the new objectives?

Gagnon, M. A., Jansen, K. J., & Michael, J. H. (2008). Employee alignment with strategic change: A study of strategy-supportive behavior among blue-collar employees. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 425-443.

Items for Behavioral alignment

1. This employee look for ways to improve the customer's experience.
2. This employee works to meet customer needs.
3. This employee looks for ways to help improve the customer's experience of COMPANY X.
4. This employee does not spend extra effort to helping achieve customer goals. (RC)
5. This employee sometimes confuses their new responsibilities with their old responsibilities. (RC)

Campbell, J. D., Trapnell, P. D., Heine, S. J., Katz, I. M., Lavallee, L. F., & Lehman, D. R. (1996). Self-concept clarity: Measurement, personality correlates, and cultural boundaries. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*(1), 141-156.

Items for self-concept clarity

1. My beliefs about myself often conflict with one another. (RC)
2. On one day I might have one opinion of myself and on another day I might have a different opinion. (RC)
3. I spend a lot of time wondering about what kind of person I really am. (RC)
4. Sometimes I feel that I am not really the person that I appear to be. (RC)
5. When I think about the kind of person I have been in the past, I'm not sure what I was really like. (RC)
6. I seldom experience conflict between the different aspects of my personality.
7. Sometimes I think I know other people better than I know myself. (RC)
8. My beliefs about myself seem to change very frequently. (RC)
9. If I were asked to describe my personality, my description might end up being different from one day to another day. (RC)
10. Even if I wanted to, I don't think I could tell someone what I'm really like. (RC)
11. In general, I have a clear sense of who I am and what I am.
12. It is often hard for me to make up my mind about things because I don't really know what I want. (RC)